The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 27, 1887.

The Week.

BOTH houses of Congress have passed the Electoral Count Bill, and it only needs the President's signature to become a law. Happily there is thought to be no doubt of the President's approval. The bill passed so quietly at last, through both houses, that it is difficult to realize why it should not have become a law years ago. It removes all doubt and confusion about the counting of the Presidential vote in Congress, and thus eliminates from our quadrennial contests one of the most disturbing elements which have ever been connected with them. This and the Presidential succession law of the last session are most important achievements. If they could be supplemented now with a constitutional amendment increasing the Presidential term to six years, we should advance still further on the way to stability and freedom (for at least part of the time) from political excitement and partisan plotting.

The addition of an article to the Hawaiian treaty, by virtue of which Pearl River Harbor, the finest roadstead in the Pacific Ocean, is ceded to us, may be a wise provision for us if the Hawaiian Government are willing to agree to it. But we cannot think this at all likely. We rather incline to the opinion of the California Senators that the adoption of this article, if insisted upon by us, will cause the rejection of the whole treaty, since the cession of Pearl River Harbor is virtually the annexation of the country to the United States without any corresponding responsibility on our part for governing and defending it.

It would puzzle a professor of political science a good deal to explain to his class the moral of the late Senatorial struggle at Albany. Mr. Morton was heavily weighted, in the eyes even of those who thought most highly of his claims to the place, by the character of his chief workers. The mere activity of Platt and Erwin in his behalf gave strength to the reports that his money was being freely used in support of his candidacy, and helped to conceal or minimize the weight of his personal character and the efficiency with which he has filled other positions in the public service. Mr. Miller was his own chief worker, and consequently his ways were less known to the general public, but the sudden adhesion to his cause of the Hon. James W. Husted at the eleventh hour sent a pang through the ranks of those who had been persuading themselves that virtue was on the Miller side. It was evident, too, long before the contest closed, that the Miller machinery was far the more complicated of the two, and that it was connected by a great deal of belting with national politics. It is almost certain, the professor might say, that some good cause has gained through the failure of the Miller-Husted combination, but what cause it is, he would add, heaven only knows.

The contest has not, we regret to say, strengthened the influence of journalism. The powerful and pertinacious support given to Mr. Conkling by the *World* did not secure for that gentleman a single vote, or, indeed, the mention of his name. The *Times* began well with pushing Hiscock, but in a moment of weariness abandoned him for Miller, whom it supported with its usual enthusiasm, with occasional exposures of Morton's villany, until Miller was defeated with Morton's aid. But Mr. Hiscock's success, on the whole, pleases everybody except Mr. Miller. It pleases Mr. Morton, because it was due to his following, and contents the public generally, because there is no question that Mr. Hiscock is a Senatorial man, fit to represent the State. The queer, roundabout way in which he has reached the place, is a curious illustration of the confusion which pervades our State politics. He will now have to be as ungrateful as possible to Platt and Erwin if he wishes to keep his good name.

When the question of reëlecting Senator Dawes of Massachusetts was first raised, outsiders sympathized with the opposition to giving him another term. In his prime Mr. Dawes was never a man of the traditional standard for Senator in Massachusetts, and age has not made him wiser or broader. If the issue had been between his reëlection and the choice in his place of a man like ex-Gov. Robinson, the movement for a change would have commanded the approbation of the country. But, as the contest developed, it became evident that the defeat of Mr. Dawes would mean the establishment of a political machine of the worst type, managed by a little clique of intriguers, with Henry Cabot Lodge at its head, and that the election of Congressman Long, a "genial," weak-kneed politician, whom this ring had taken up as the anti-Dawes candidate, would only signify the submission of the party to an odious sort of bossism. For some time past, therefore, friends of honest politics have desired the defeat of the stalking-horse for this machine, and, on Mr. Robinson's refusal to become a candidate, the reëlection of Mr. Dawes becomes a cause for congratulation. Various motives are assigned for the turning over of the Democratic votes to the Senator, which decided the contest. While some of the minority may have adopted this course in the hope of promoting factional strife among the Republicans, it is probable that the controlling reason with most of them was the belief that the reëlection of Mr. Dawes would be the best thing for the State.

The Mexican war is now nearly forty years in the past, and it would be natural to suppose that a proposition to pension every man who served sixty days in that war, or the surviving widow of such a man, could not long affect the pension rolls. Yet, if precedents are of any value, it is not unreasonable to suppose that beneficiaries of the law which Congress passes in 1887 will be enjoying their allowances as far in the future as the middle of the twentieth century. The last report of the Commissioner of Pensions shows that there are yet on the rolls 1,539 survivors of the war of 1812 and 13,397 widows of such soldiers. Nor is the war of 1812 the earliest in our history which has a place in the current pension business. The Revolution ended in 1783, but there is still living in the town of Northwood, N. H., in her ninety-sixth year, a woman who in her early life married Capt. Benjamin Stevens, a Revolutionary soldier, who participated in the battle of Bennington, and as his widow she draws a pension of $16 a month. The fancy of young women for marrying the aged veterans of a bygone war, with an eye oftentimes to the pension which awaits a soon inevitable widowhood, appears to be as strong nowadays as in the early part of the century, and consequently it is quite within the range of possibility that 1950 may find the nation still paying pensions on account of the war of 1847.

The First Comptroller of the Treasury has just overruled the decision of his immediate predecessor, that the compensation of Congressmen could not be withheld to meet their liabilities to the United States. The law of 1828 (section 1766 of the Revised Statutes) in very strong and sweeping terms declares that "no money shall be paid to any person for his compensation who is in arrears to the United States, until he has accounted for and paid into the Treasury all sums for which he may be liable." But, notwithstanding this plain provision, when the celebrated "Colonel" Tom Ochiltree, who, as Marshal of the Eastern District of Texas, owed the United States about $7,000, appeared, as a Representative in Congress, before the late Comptroller, with "an able and elaborate argument," and protested against the setting aside of his Congressional salary for the extinguishment of this debt, it was held that the statute did not apply to such a case The reason given for this decision was that section 6 of the first article of the Constitution in imperative language declared that "The Senators and Representatives *shall receive* a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the Treasury of the United States." It would appear from the published decision of the late Comptroller (iv. Lawrence, 102) that this language was so mandatory that a member of Congress himself could not, without violating the law of the land, refuse to accept the compensation provided for him. Mr. Durham seems to take the more sensible view that it simply required the legislative branch to provide salaries for "the Senators and Representatives," but that it by no means put it out of the power of the Government to withhold their compensation to balance their indebtedness on the books of the Treasury.

All good citizens will rejoice that a mandamus has been granted by the United States District Court, directing the French line of steamers to receive freight from the Old Dominion Steamship Company. We believe several of these foreign steamship companies have

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deliberately concluded that they would make more, or rather lose less, money by disregarding their legal and moral obligations as common carriers than by opposing the boycott set on foot by the strikers against the Old Dominion Steamship Company, as long as they had nothing to fear beyond an action for damages. A mandamus, however, carries with it the penalty of imprisonment for contempt in case of disobedience, and the prospect of a jail often has a wonderfully clarifying effect on the brain on the subject of rights and duties. In case Judge Shipman has to award this penalty, we trust he will be liberal in fixing the amount, so as to remind these great carriers of what they owe to the community. The companies which are helping to boycott the Old Dominion Company by refusing to perform their own duty, have no excuse except that they are afraid that, if they did their duty, they might suffer some loss. This reminds one of the preparations the Manhattan Railroad Company made last year to stop running trains on the Ninth and Second Avenue lines, through fear that the engineers on the other lines were going to strike. It would be useless to preach duty and moderation to the poor strikers if great corporations were to be allowed to behave in this way. So we trust the courts will show these foreign companies that if they start in business as common carriers at this port, a common carrier's business they must do, for better or worse, as long as their sign is up, or else allow their managers to be locked up for meditation in the sweet retirement of Ludlow Street Jail.

The end of the strike at the Lorillard tobacco factory would be amusing if it did not cover so much misery and humbug The strikers—or at least those of them whose places have not been filled—are going back to work, and we are told that no statement of the grievances which caused them to strike has ever been submitted to the firm. The probabilities are that, as in the case of the 'longshoremen, the great bulk of them did not know why they struck. This often happens nowadays. The strikes are ordered by Walking Delegates, nominally in the interest of an abstraction called "Labor," but really in order to show something for their salaries. This is one of the great defects of all the existing labor organizations except the locomotive engineers. In nearly all the other trades the Oral Laborers, who manage them, think their value to the organizations depends, or will be thought to depend, on the amount of disturbance between employer and employed which they are able to create in the course of the year. Until this is rectified, either by the growth of intelligence among the rank and file, or the selection of a better grade of men for the leadership, Labor will, we fear, make little progress towards a happier life.

The statement which Archbishop Corrigan has made of the McGlynn case leaves nothing more to be said on either side. No man can read it and not be convinced that Dr. McGlynn has been treated with great forbearance and kindness, and that he fully deserves the discipline to which he has been subjected. His letters are more than justification for the suspension which the Church authorities have ordered. Take, for example, these passages from the one which he wrote to the Archbishop on December 20 last:

"My doctrine about land has been made clear in speeches, in reported interviews, and in published articles, and I repeat it here I have taught, and I shall continue to teach, in speeches and writings, *as long as I live*, that land is rightfully the property of the people in common, and that private ownership of land is *against natural justice, no matter by what civil or ecclesiastical* laws it may be sanctioned; and I would bring about instantly, if I could, such change of laws all the world over as would confiscate private property in land, *without one penny of compensation to the miscalled owners.*"

That doctrine is not only sufficient to exclude any man professing it from the Catholic Church, but from all churches, or even from preaching morals or ethics. It is the rankest socialism, and any church which permitted its clergy to preach it would be giving its sanction to anarchy. That the Archbishop, after receiving this letter, should have continued to treat Dr. McGlynn leniently, is the strongest possible evidence of his forbearance.

We are glad to say that Mr. Reilly's bill making September 1 a legal holiday, to be called "Labor Day," has passed the Senate of New York. As this is one of the steps towards the solution of the labor problem recommended by Gov. Hill, we trust the bill will be promptly passed by the House. When it becomes a law, all we shall have to do is to wait with hopefulness for the arrival of the day, and see what happens. We must repeat, however, that we think the name given to the day is a mistake. To call it a "Labor Day," when it is to be devoted to idleness, is surely an abuse of language. There ought to be inserted in the bill some recommendation as to the manner in which we should pass the day, like that which the President and Governor put in their proclamations about Thankgiving and Fast Days. The most fruitful way of passing it would seem to be in meditating on Labor. If meditation on Labor in general should seem too vague or monotonous, we might devote a certain fixed portion of the day to meditation on a different class of Labor; for instance, from eight A. M. to ten A. M., on plumbers; from ten to twelve, on coal-heavers; from twelve to two on 'longshoremen; and from two to four on Walking Delegates, and so on.

Pinkerton's Men have begun to attract the attention of the labor demagogues in the State Legislatures. The Senate in this State has passed a resolution requesting the District Attorney to find out "by what authority persons other than police officers and the National and State militia carry or are permitted to carry arms in the city and county of New York, with a reference to the law, statute or otherwise, bearing on the subject, and what, if any, legislation is necessary to prevent or prohibit the carrying of arms by such persons." We presume the carrying of arms, provided they are not concealed, on a man's own premises, or on the premises of his employer, at the employer's request when in reasonable apprehension of danger to life or property, is a common-law right. It is in fact the right of self-defence, of which no citizen can be deprived. The New Jersey Assembly has introduced a bill prohibiting mayors and sheriffs from employing as special policemen persons who have not lived in the State continuously for three years at least, or in the county where called on for one year. Pinkerton, by the way, has no prejudices. He would as soon hire Jerseymen as any others. Another bill prohibits the employment of Pinkerton's Men as deputy sheriffs, policemen, or constables. This is all very well, but it ought also to provide some stringent penalty for the failure or refusal of local authorities to furnish police protection to persons calling for the same when menaced by mob violence and their business interfered with. In the meantime no power can prevent Pinkerton's doing a good business in furnishing a private force for the defence of houses, stores, factories, yards, wharves, and other private premises against Labor until the public get tired of the prevailing lawlessness.

The Louisville *Courier-Journal* falls foul of a statement of fact made by the *Nation* recently, that the United States Treasury, in making its payments, allows the holder of the warrants drawn upon it to take whatever kind of money he pleases, gold, silver, or greenbacks. It says:

"These sweeping assertions are misrepresentations of the practice of the Treasury, except as to bondholders, Government officials at Washington, and members of Congress. It is and has been the rule to pay *these classes* of creditors in gold and greenbacks, or bank checks; but, as to *all other claimants*, the Treasury exercises the option of all other payers, and uses either form of legal-tender currency, gold, silver, or greenbacks, which may best suit its convenience."

Turning to the list of public payments other than those to "bondholders, Government officials at Washington, and members of Congress," which, according to the *Courier-Journal*, belong to the privileged class of creditors, the largest item we find is that of pensions, $68,000,000. The pensioners, we are to understand, are treated differently from the bondholders, being put off with anything that comes handy, while the gold in the Treasury is carefully reserved for the privileged few. Then come the foreign ministers and consuls. One would expect to find them among the pampered classes, *rioting in gold*; but no—according to our learned contemporary, they are treated no better than the pensioners, having silver or greenbacks or anything else shovelled out to them haphazard. Next come the judges of the courts, the marshals and district attorneys, Governors of Territories, land officers, Indian agents, etc., all humiliated and discriminated against in the treatment they receive at the Treasury. The army and navy fare no better. We should expect the Government contractors to be in the best position of all, or no way behind the bondholders in getting the choicest places at the pay table. Far from it. They have to take anything that is left after the bondholders and the Washington aristocrats are served. We wonder that Senator Beck has not denounced this unseemly practice of discrimination. Perhaps it is because he is himself one of the beneficiaries of it, drawing his salary in gold, while the poor postmasters and gaugers of distilled spirits in Bourbon

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County are compelled to take the very leavings and offscourings of the public till.

They were having a good time in northern Alabama last week putting up the price of iron, organizing new companies, erecting new furnaces, issuing stock, and "booming" generally, when suddenly, as the Philadelphia *Press* correspondent tells us, "a shadow was thrown across the jubilation by the announcement that the Roone Iron Company of Chattanooga had just closed a contract for the purchase of 40,000 tons of English pig-iron for the manufacture of steel rails." This unaccountable mishap has, according to the same authority, led to a great revival of protectionist sentiment in that region, looking to an increase of the duty on pig-iron, which stands at the beggarly sum of six dollars per ton, or not much above 50 per cent. ad valorem. What view the Roone Iron Company, the real culprits, take of the agitation, we are not informed. They might say that they wanted the iron to make rails with American labor, and could not get it anywhere else. They might plead that their own customers could not wait for the pig to be made in this country. They might say to the "boomers" in iron mines and stocks that the ore and coal of northern Alabama would keep, and would come into use fast enough for the advantage of the American people under a duty of $6 per ton. They might put in a variety of special pleas, but everybody would be able to see that they were only clever devices for cheating American labor. The only sure way to avoid such scandals is to bring the iron-makers together in a room, and make them take a solemn oath not to charge more than the foreign price for iron, plus duty, freight, etc., and put up a pecuniary forfeit for any violation of the agreement. On such conditions, and on the further condition that they can make all the pig metal wanted, they might confidently appeal to the Roone Iron Company not to bring reproach upon the country by buying English pig.

The Rev. Dr. Hall of this city, speaking last week to the Brooklyn Young Men's Christian Association on "Moral Risks and the Insurance against Them," made one assertion which we think he would himself admit requires a great deal of qualification. He said:

> "People cry out against the degraded moral tone of the newspapers, but I tell you that we, the readers of the papers, are responsible for that degradation. The readers demand a certain style of literature, and it is furnished in an honest endeavor to satisfy the paper's constituency."

Now this very excuse might be made for all vendors of obscene literature. Such literature would not be produced if there were not a certain demand for it; but when Anthony Comstock catches one of these vendors, and brings him into court, he is not allowed to plead in extenuation of his offence that he found a good market for his wares. It might, too, with one or two trifling alterations, be made to cover the case of keepers of brothels and gambling hells and liquor-saloons. If the law allowed these establishments to be multiplied in proportion to the demand for them, they would swarm in this city beyond endurance. One of the great, if not the greatest, objections to indecent and immoral literature is that it has a constant tendency to enlarge its own market—that is, to foster and spread with great rapidity the tastes to which it appeals for support. When a scoundrel gets hold of a school catalogue, and sends his filthy books and pictures to the pupils, it is not because there exists there already what the economists call an effective demand for them. It is because he expects that the sight of them will create an appetite for them which will procure him further orders.

The application of all this to newspapers is very simple. That there is a public which likes to have sensational, trivial, and indecent gossip supplied to it as "news of the day" there is no doubt. But newspaper editors have it in their power to foster this taste or to foster better ones, just as they please. In fact, every newspaper conducted with ability in greater or less degree makes its own market. All the newspapers acknowledge this in their annual prospectuses. Not one of them admits that it appeals for support to the silly, or vicious, or trifling, or ignorant portion of the community. No publisher would deliberately take refuge under Dr. Hall's plea, and claim that he was under compulsion of any kind to make an indecent or puerile or sensational newspaper. Every one of them pretends, with more or less assurance, that his influence on society is on the whole an elevating and purifying one, and makes for morality and social order, and that his journal is just the thing for "family reading." Under these circumstances it is rather hard for that portion of the public which is protesting against the recent tendency to care more for the vicious and prurient or trivial than for the serious things of life, and which has apparently produced some effect, to find a man in Dr. Hall's position helping to relieve the newspapers of their responsibility, and put it on the shoulders of the general public, which has already all it can bear. There is no arrangement which all kinds of dealers in bad literature would like better, because half the dirt is in appearance taken out of a dirty calling by finding that you can both make money in it and escape censure.

There is said to be a movement on foot in Chicago for the restoration of knee-breeches, and a number of men are exchanging pledges to wear them. Whether such a movement can succeed is doubtful, but there is no question that the opinion is spreading through the civilized world that the introduction of trousers at the beginning of the present century was a mistake, and that the advantages they were at first supposed to possess over knee-breeches have proved illusory. These advantages were the saving of trouble in the matter of buttoning at the knee, and the deliverance from criticism of persons with ill-made legs, or, in other words, the diffusion of equality in the matter of legs. The trousers have, however, revealed another sort of inequality still more odious—inequality in wealth. No article of clothing more distinctly reveals the condition of a man's purse than the trousers. The fraying at the lower edge of the leg, which is sure to come with much wear, is generally taken as a sign of very narrow means, and the bagging at the knee, which is also inevitable, besides producing a foundered appearance, like that of a horse which is "gone" in the forelegs, is a sign that a man has only one or two pairs. It is assumed by the world generally that nobody would wear trousers bagged at the knee, with all the term implies, if he could afford the number of changes necessary to prevent this phenomenon. In fact, almost the only marked difference remaining in our day between the clothes of a man of fortune and leisure and those of a toiler of moderate means, lies in the straightness and smoothness which marks the trousers-legs of the former. His wardrobe always contains a great many pairs. At any theatre, too, the make-up of a poor teacher or literary man, or poor devil of any kind, includes invariably a pair of baggy trousers. And though last not least, the condition of the trousers in muddy weather is something which it is painful to dwell on. The conversion of an inch or two of the bottom into a wet and filthy band is only preventable by turning them up, and we all know how this looks. An effort has recently been made to meet the struggles of men of few trousers to escape the bagging at the knee, by an invention of a machine called "the trousers stretcher," which is literally a metal rack on which offending trousers are stretched over night, and the deformity effaced by a powerful tension in the direction of their length. But neither nickel-plating nor any other ornamentation will ever render this device a grateful one to refined and self-respecting men.

It may therefore be said that on the whole the knee-breeches were the more democratic of the two. They undergo no degeneration in wear, except what comes from the actual destruction of the cloth. They reveal nothing as to the condition of a man's wardrobe until they reach their last stage. They always look neat and tidy, and do not come in contact with the mud, leaving that to be encountered by a boot or stocking which can be readily changed. But they are in summer a hot garment, owing to their fitting so closely round the knee—a defect, however, which is perhaps compensated by the possibility, without damage to appearance, of making them very loose. They are, too, now making a gallant effort to regain their old supremacy and oust the trousers. They have made conquests of most of the sporting men and athletes, and have made considerable gains in the Continental armies. The Turks, who abandoned them under Mahmoud the reformer, for the (on them) hideous Frankish trousers, have gone back to the breeches. Some faint attempts have been made to introduce them again into evening dress, but these have failed, owing in part to the light and frivolous character of those who have made them. If undertaken in a serious spirit by any of the crowned heads, or by great warriors and statesmen, or in this country by great railroad men or stock operators, the enterprise would probably succeed,

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, January 19, to TUESDAY, January 25, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE Senate on Thursday finally passed the Electoral Count Bill, which will become a law on receiving the President's signature.

The Senate on Thursday ratified the new treaty with the Hawaiian Government with hardly a dissenting vote. Twelve only of the Senators were opposed to the treaty, and they did not demand a division on the final vote. The treaty extends for seven years the commercial relations of the United States with the islands as they now exist, and continues them indefinitely until either one of the contracting parties gives one year's notice of a desire to abrogate the instrument. A very important amendment has been made to the treaty by the Senate, and, until it is approved by the President and the Hawaiian Government, ratifications cannot be exchanged. The amendment cedes to the United States Pearl River Harbor as a coaling and naval station. Should the President and the Hawaiian Government consent to this amendment, the United States will have secured a firm lodgment in the Pacific Ocean.

Mr. Edmunds, from the Committee on Foreign Relations, reported to the Senate on Wednesday a bill to authorize the President of the United States to protect and defend the rights of American fishing vessels, American fishermen, American trading and other vessels, in certain cases, and for other purposes. The Senate on Monday afternoon took up the bill. Mr. Frye (Rep., Me.) supported it. He said that the difficulties between the United States and Canada upon the fisheries subject would be immediately settled if the President, under the second section of this bill, should forbid the importation of Canadian fish into the United States. Referring to the passage of the new Seizure Law by the Dominion of Canada and its approval by the Queen, after the British Foreign Office knew the details of the outrages upon fishermen as communicated to it by the State Department, he said: "That is the law passed by the Dominion of Canada, and approved by the Queen, and, if allowed to go into effect, how can it help bringing on war?" The Senate, with only the vote of Mr. Riddleberger in the negative, passed the bill on Monday.

The House on Wednesday finally shelved the Blair Educational Bill, by laying on the table a motion to reconsider the vote by which it refused to table the resolution to set apart a day for consideration.

The House on Friday passed the Inter-State Commerce Bill finally by 219 to 41. It was passed by the Senate 43 to 15. It now goes to the President. The House also adopted the conference report on the bill for the allotment of lands in severalty to Indians.

The protection Democrats of the House completed consideration on Monday night of their bill to reduce the surplus revenue. The bill repeals the tax on tobacco and weiss beer, and the license tax on dealers in whiskey. The question whether the tax on alcohol used in the arts should be removed, or the tax on whiskey should be reduced, is left to be decided by the House. The provisions of the Randall bill which increased the duties in certain cases, are stricken out. The free list of the Randall bill has also been increased. Lumber, goat's hair, fur used in making hats, jute, and jute butts are among the articles placed on the free list. The duty on steel rails is reduced to $13. The principal features of the Hewitt Customs Administrative Bill are incorporated in the new bill, together with some additions suggested by the Treasury Department. What is known as the "warehouse" section of the Hewitt bill, however, is eliminated. It is expected that the customs sections of the bill will effect a reduction of $10,000,000, and that the total reduction of revenue made by the bill will be from $55,000,000 to $60,000,000.

The Massachusetts Legislature in joint session on Wednesday reëlected Mr. Dawes to the United States Senate, about 80 of the Democrats joining with the Dawes Republicans, giving him 181 votes to 57 for Robinson, and 26 for Long.

The Wisconsin Republican legislative caucus on Thursday night unanimously renominated Philetus Sawyer for United States Senator. The Democrats nominated ex-Congressman John Winans. Senator Sawyer will be elected, the Republican majority being thirty-seven. After an all-night session the Nebraska Republicans in a full legislative caucus nominated A. S. Paddock for United States Senator to succeed C. H. Van Wyck. This ended the contest, and Mr. Paddock was elected at the joint session. He was previously a United States Senator from Nebraska from 1875 to 1881.

The long-term Senatorship question in Tennessee was settled on Monday night in the Democratic caucus by the nomination of ex-Gov. W. B. Bate. He was elected on Tuesday.

In the Republican caucus at Albany on Wednesday night the first ballot showed no change. After the twelfth ballot Mr. Erwin withdrew the name of Mr. Morton, and on the next ballot the Morton vote went over to Hiscock. Then Frost and Horton of Chautauqua and Taylor of Chenango went from Miller to Hiscock, and the latter was nominated by a vote of fifty to forty-three. The joint convention of the Legislature on Thursday formally elected Mr. Hiscock Senator. Mr. Hiscock has been a representative in Congress for the Syracuse district for ten years, and has a good record.

The New York Senate passed on Monday night a resolution calling on the District Attorney of this city to report by what authority persons other than police officers and the national and State military carry, or are permitted to carry, arms in the city, with a reference to the law, statute or otherwise, bearing on the subject, and what, if any, legislation is necessary to prevent or prohibit the carrying of arms by such persons. This refers to Pinkerton's men.

The North Carolina House of Representatives passed on Wednesday, by a vote of 54 to 52, a resolution declaring that "the efforts of President Cleveland to elevate and purify the public service of the United States meet with the hearty approbation of this General Assembly."

The Rev. Dr. McGlynn makes the public announcement, through his physician, Dr. George F. Shrady, that he has been prevented by his physical condition from obeying the summons to go to Rome.

The annual report of President Eliot of Harvard predicts great good from the system of voluntary religious services. The new system of requirements of admission which has been in use for the past two years, President Eliot argues, will have a most beneficial effect upon the preparatory schools, enabling them to widen the scope of their teaching. The new requirements are also expected to assist in bringing down the average age of admission to eighteen or thereabout. At present about two-fifths of the Freshmen are over nineteen at entrance. The attitude of the College towards foot-ball is left an open question. The Treasurer's report shows that the invested funds of the University amount to $5,190,772.35, an increase over the previous year of about $270,000. This amount produced last year a revenue of $260,303.01. The total income of the year was $688,218.56, and the total expenses $626,899.80.

Gen. Charles P. Stone, known from his military services in Egypt as Stone Pasha, died on Monday afternoon in this city. He was born in Massachusetts on September 30, 1824, and was graduated from West Point in 1845. After serving with credit in the Mexican war he resigned from the army and settled in California. At the outbreak of the rebellion he was in Washington, and was, it is said, the first volunteer officer sworn into the Union service. He held the rank of colonel and brigadier-general. After the fight at Ball's Bluff he was court-martialled, and was imprisoned for nearly a year in Fort Lafayette. He asserted that he was treated very unfairly. Being released in August, 1862, he rejoined the army, serving in the Department of the Gulf, and then commanding a brigade in the Army of the Potomac. In 1870 Gen. Stone accepted a flattering offer from the Khedive of Egypt to enter his military service, and his work in reorganizing the Egyptian Army was everywhere commended by military critics in the highest terms. He remained in the Khedive's service until 1883. As engineer and director of the pedestal for the Bartholdi Statue of Liberty on Bedloe's Island, Gen. Stone's name again became familiar.

FOREIGN.

The principal German parties have issued election addresses. The Progressists call upon their partisans to support only candidates opposed to absolute government and a sham Constitution, warning them that otherwise tobacco and spirit monopolies and other evils will be introduced in Parliament. "We must make a stand," they say, "to maintain the foundation of the Imperial Constitution, especially universal secret suffrage." The Conservative manifesto says the watchword of the struggle must be "No parliamentary army, but an imperial army." The National Liberal leaders severely censure the action of the majority of the Reichstag, and call upon National Liberals to elect only men determined to make sacrifices for the security of the empire against foes at home and abroad.

The new German Liberals of the Second Berlin District met on Saturday for the purpose of deciding on their action in the coming election for member of the Reichstag. Three thousand electors attended. It was resolved to support Prof. Virchow against Gen. von Moltke as their candidate. Herr Richter, in a speech advocating this policy, said he admitted that the personal merits of Gen. von Moltke were supereminent, but contended that it was not the duty of the electors to provide that the military interests of the empire should be strongly represented in the Reichstag, but rather to elect to that body those who could and would defend the civil interests of the people, to the end that there might be a proper equalization of the civil and military claims put forth. The views of eminent civilians should be recognized in opposition to the one-sided military view.

The Prussian budget was on Friday presented to the Lower House of the Diet. It shows that the trade of Prussia has improved, decreasing the deficiency in the revenues. The railway receipts for the fiscal year ending in 1887 will exceed expenses by the sum of 20,000,000 marks. The receipts from the income tax will be larger than they have heretofore been, proving that the prosperity of the urban population has much increased. The statistics show that the population in the rural districts has lessened.

Prince Bismarck made a long speech on Monday in the Lower House of the Prussian Diet, in the course of which he referred to the recent rejection of the Army Bill by the Reichstag. He said: "The main duty attached to the rights of the Emperor is the protection of the empire. This duty is also placed in the hands of the Emperor by the Constitution, and is not placed in the hands either of any Parliamentary majority or of party leaders. A portion of the press, commenting on the rejection of the Army Bill, represent it as absolutely immaterial whether the measure were accepted for three or for seven years. But

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the reasons alleged for acceptance for three years were unacceptable in themselves; and besides it was impossible to permit the Reichstag arbitrarily to interfere with the ordering of the military affairs of the empire. In view of Article 60 of the Constitution, which provides that an effective army shall be given the empire by law, the ordinary mode of granting it must be regarded as abolished, otherwise it would have been stated that the grant of an effective army should be renewed periodically or provided for in each budget. The Government, therefore, would be fully entitled to demand the fixing of an effective army in perpetuity; but the Government, wishing for progressive development in these matters, had agreed to accept a compromise for seven years, which, having been twice renewed, the right of custom had been established with regard to the septennate period. . . . I regard the final objects of the Progressist party as anti-monarchical and crypto-republican. I need not defend myself against the reproach of wishing to introduce absolutism in Prussia and Germany. I am far from deprecating the Guelphs' loyalty to their King. I have only attacked their system of professing such sentiments to mask other objects."

The German Army possesses a new explosive, called roburite. It is reported to be stronger than mélinite. The method of manufacture is a secret. It is exploded by intense heat.

The war rumors thickened on Monday, and there was a semi-panic on the London Stock Exchange. On the Paris Bourse there was also a sharp decline. It was asserted in Paris that Gen. Boulanger had ordered the commanders of all French fortresses to be at their posts before February 20. The British Foreign Office, late on Monday, denied officially that it had warlike advices. Boulanger also denied that he had moved any troops towards the frontier.

The French papers of all parties join in accusing the English press of inventing and circulating bellicose canards. The French journalists assert that English newspaper men engage in this alleged work from pecuniary motives, being interested in influencing the stock markets.

The Budget Committee of the Chamber of Deputies on Friday, by a vote of 18 to 6, rejected the amended budget presented by M. Dauphin, Minister of Finance, providing for an issue of bonds to the amount of 375,000,000 francs, redeemable in sixty-six years, to meet the temporary needs of the Government. M. Dauphin, consequently, was expected to resign. Contrary to expectation, the Cabinet on Saturday decided to withdraw the supplemental budget and accepted the Committee's proposals, including that for an issue of sexennial treasury bonds to cover the present deficit. This, it is believed, has averted the Cabinet crisis.

The French agent in Madagascar telegraphs that his relations with the Hovas are excellent, and that a settlement of the disputes between France and Madagascar will soon be effected.

Claude Ferdinand Gaillard, the distinguished French painter and engraver, is dead in his fifty-third year. M. Gaillard carried off the Prix de Rome for engraving in 1856, and is the author of many important plates, including portraits and reproductions of the works of old and modern masters. His paintings embrace portraits, Biblical subjects, and copies of old masters.

M. Zankoff recently submitted to the Grand Vizier at Constantinople the following proposals for the settlement of the Bulgarian difficulty: "That the Regency be dismissed and a new Ministry be formed, the foreign and interior portfolios to be given to Zankoffists, and the war portfolio to Gen. Kaulbars; that a new Sobranye be elected; that the Constitution be modified, and that the Prince of Mingrelia be elected to the vacant throne;" The Grand Vizier replied that the Porte could not accept these proposals.

Although the Bulgarian situation has improved, the military preparations of the Austro-Hungarian Government continue unabated. In the event of mobilization three great armies will be formed, each corps having no less than 250,000 men. Commanders for these corps have already been designated. It is believed that these gigantic preparations have been undertaken, less from fear of war with Russia concerning Bulgaria than with a view to the contingency of war between France and Germany, which would cause additional Eastern complications. Rules governing the Landsturm which have just been published show that nothing except blindness, deafness, dumbness, and lameness will exempt men from service, and that drafts from the Landsturm will be used to fill up the gaps in the regular army and navy reserves. It is estimated that the Landsturm would supply a million additional men to the army.

Frederick Amerling, the Austrian painter, who died recently, bequeathed to the city of Vienna his collection of art antiques, valued at $125,000, on condition that it be kept intact for public inspection.

At a protracted British Cabinet council on Wednesday it was determined to press on the new Coercion Bill as soon as possible. Fear was generally expressed that it could not be carried without previous changes in the rules of procedure; therefore the Government will probably introduce a procedure bill first and a coercion bill afterwards. The impression is spreading throughout the country that the coercion proposals will have the effect immediately of expelling the Government from office.

At a meeting in Liverpool on Friday evening, Mr. Goschen denied that the separatists had the verdict of America and the whole civilized world at their backs, because many intelligent Americans had told him that they perfectly understood the cause the Unionists were defending. He set more value upon the American example in the quarrel between the North and the South than upon any resolutions cabled from Chicago.

In the course of a letter to an American friend Mr. Joseph Chamberlain says: "I cannot quite remember how the American comparison originated in our conversation, but I think I was pointing out to you that the cardinal distinctions between Mr. Gladstone's Irish policy and mine were very great; that in fact he sought to give national home rule, while I was not prepared to go further than what I may call provincial home rule, similar in character, though not in all its details, to the home rule of the United States or the provinces of the Canadian Dominion. In the course of the controversy Irishmen have frequently appealed to those precedents as justifying their demands, but of course the real fact is that a State of the American Union or a province of Canada has not, and never has had, any pretensions to the right of a separate nation; and the moment this view of national right seriously entered the minds of the citizens of the Southern States, secession and civil war were the natural results. I think that if our American friends understood this and worked it out, they would cease to be so seriously sympathetic with our Irish secessionists."

Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, Chief Secretary for Ireland, has been invited by a number of Irish members of Parliament to visit Glenbeigh and see what cruelty the Government permits in evictions. Even the Tories in England are becoming disgusted with the evictions.

The amount of reduction of rents accepted by the tenants on the estates of Lord Londonderry, the Lord Lieutenant, was 10 per cent. The tenants had demanded a 30 per cent. reduction

The report of the British Commission appointed to investigate the Belfast riots of last summer has been made public. The Commissioners say that the royal Irish constabulary should be maintained as a police force in Belfast, the commander being free from all police authority except that of the Inspector-General, and responsible for the preservation of the peace without the control of the magistracy or of other authority than the Executive. The Chief of Police, the report says, should be empowered to forbid parades with bands of music and other public demonstrations. He should also be empowered to increase the force sufficiently to enable him to deal with riots without calling upon the police of other districts, a large enough military force also being maintained to prevent such a necessity.

Lord Randolph Churchill, replying to an inquiry regarding his letter upon national finances, says he thinks that between the years 1868 and 1874 the management of the finances was fairly good; that from 1874 to 1880 it was not quite so satisfactory, while from 1880 to 1885 it was simply infamous. He adds that if this summary be found not incorrect, the cause may reasonably be assigned to Parliamentary demoralization springing from the Irish difficulty, unwise legislation, and an injudicious foreign policy.

Sir Michael Morris, at present Lord Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas of Ireland, has been appointed Lord Chief Justice of Ireland, vice George Augustus May, resigned.

Sir Joseph Whitworth, the eminent engineer, died at Monte Carlo on Saturday. The baronetcy expired with him. He was eighty-four years of age. In 1854 he began the manufacture of the breech-loading rifles, cannon projectiles, and other firearms with which his name is associated, being for many years a competitor with Sir W. G. Armstrong. He was made a baronet in October, 1869, and in the same year founded the "Whitworth scholarships" of £100 a year each, tenable for two or three years, for the encouragement of mechanical science.

The Belgian Government has introduced in Parliament a bill to suppress drunkenness. It provides that drunkards in public places and publicans serving drunkards or children shall be fined and imprisoned, and that debts incurred in purchasing intoxicants shall not be recoverable.

Cardinal Jacobini has resigned the office of Pontifical Secretary of State. His successor will be the Nuncio at Madrid. The Pope has accepted the resignation, and as a mark of esteem has invited the Cardinal to continue to live in the papal residence.

The Spanish Government is willing to grant amnesty to Zorilla and other political exiles provided their friends can induce them to return to Spain. It is believed that Zorilla will decline. There are rumors that he is preparing for another revolution.

Commenting on the passage of the Fisheries Retaliation Bill by the United States Senate, the Montreal *Gazette*, official organ of the Dominion Government, says: "It is true that there has been denied to American fishing vessels the commercial privileges extended to other vessels in Canadian ports—that is to say, the privilege to land cargo, purchase supplies, etc.; but that exclusion is no more a straining of the treaty governing the rights of Canada than is the prohibition of fishing within three miles of the shore. The attitude of the Dominion Government is not a novel one. It has been consistently maintained for nearly seventy years past, except during the operation of the Reciprocity Treaty of 1854 and the Washington Treaty of 1871. There are two aspects to this question, which the Congress of the United States is apparently determined not to consider, namely, the limitation of the exclusion policy of Canada to fishing vessels, and the desire of Canada to reach a settlement of the difficulty by means of arbitration."

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PINKERTON'S MEN.

THE unfortunate killing of a boy in Jersey City, by a chance shot from one of Pinkerton's men employed in guarding the coal company's wharves in Jersey City against the strikers, is exciting a great deal of indignation against this organization among the strikers and their friends. That disgraceful demagogue, Mayor Cleveland of Jersey City, is particularly loud in his denunciation of them, and a great many good people are asking why an armed body of this sort, which is not under the control of or responsible to any public authority, should be permitted to figure as prominently as it does in these labor troubles. We are very glad that people are beginning to ask what it means, and why it exists, because the answer is most instructive.

It cannot be too soon or too well understood that, as an armed organization offering itself for hire for purposes of defence in various parts of the Union, Pinkerton's Men are, we must all admit, the greatest disgrace that has befallen the United States. No such evidence of our internal weakness and lawlessness as the existence and activity of this organization constitutes has been offered to the world since the present Government was founded. Its appearance in any other civilized country would fill to-day every man in it with shame and astonishment. For it is—let nobody shrink from this plain truth—an unmistakable sign of retrogression towards mediæval barbarism. Pinkerton is neither more nor less than the head of a band of mercenaries, such as each great landholder in the eleventh and twelfth centuries kept in his pay for the defence of his property and that of his vassals against the armed attacks of his neighbors. They are called into existence by exactly the same causes now as then — the absence of a public force capable of enforcing the law of the land, and affording security for life and property to the peaceable and well-disposed. Now as then, now as at every time since the dawn of civilization, no men of the Aryan race who have accumulated property of any kind will submit to be despoiled of it, or interfered with in the management of it, or allow any person or body of persons to "go upon them or send upon them," as the Barons said in Magna Charta, without trying to defend themselves. If there are courts, they will appeal to the courts; if there are police, they will call in the police; if there are troops, they will ask for the troops to defend their rights under the law; but if neither courts, nor police, nor troops will do anything for them, they will hire an army of their own. Of course, this is anarchy in its first stage. The word is not a pleasant one, but it must be used when the occasion calls for it.

The demand for Pinkerton's Men began nearly twenty years ago in the coal regions in Pennsylvania, when the Molly Maguires took possession of them, and superseded the law by a foul and murderous conspiracy. This conspiracy was then called, as some such things are now called, "Labor." Labor overawed the sheriffs, defied the courts, intimidated the juries, and marked out its enemies for assassination literally by the dozen. It reduced a large and populous district to a condition of terror and disorder which it would have been hard to match outside of Central Africa. The corporations owning the property, finding there was no help to be expected from the public force, hired a force of their own, with Pinkerton at its head; and through his exertions Labor was at last brought to justice, and twenty cut-throats righteously hanged.

Since then the need for a small private army of this sort for the defence of property has not diminished, but on the contrary has increased. Pinkerton has enlarged and improved his force. It is better armed and drilled every year, and it travels to and fro, all over the United States, a sort of moving shame and disgrace for us all. No American ought to be able to look on it without blushing to the roots of his hair. Its presence always means that American mayors and sheriffs and governors have refused, at the demand of Labor, or through the fear of Labor, to give American citizens protection for either life or property; that they stand idly by while Labor pursues poor men with brickbats, bludgeons, and pistols to prevent their accepting employment which is offered them; and that they deny to employers the means of protecting their premises from wreck and pillage at the hands of men who insist on working for them against their will. In all the great strikes which have occurred during the past year Labor has asserted the doctrine of compulsory hiring—that is, the right of certain men to be hired by certain employers on their own terms, whether the employers want them or not, and the right to assert this right by force of arms—that is, to besiege the premises with weapons of offence, and prevent, by attacks on life and property, the transaction of all business until their demands are complied with. This is not an overcharged statement. We challenge any one to mention a single strike on a large scale during the past year in which the strikers did not either actually resort to violence, or take pains to produce the belief throughout the neighborhood that they would do so if necessary.

What adds to the disgrace is, that the power against which Pinkerton's army is called on to protect property is a ludicrously small minority of the population. Labor, which has brought this shame on us, and in fear of which Governors of American States and Mayors of American cities are ready to play the mountebank in their public utterances, and violate their oaths of office, and dishonor the national flag, probably does not number 1,000,000 all told, and a large proportion of it is composed of poor and ignorant foreigners, who know not what they do, and to whom every intelligent American's first duty is to make plain that in this land of liberty the law is omnipotent.

The poor demagogue who is playing the rôle of Mayor over in Jersey City ought, however, to be the last to complain of Pinkerton's Men. If the state of things to which he and the like of him are trying to bring about in the United States should ever be realized, the Pinkerton army will be a much more formidable body than it is now. At present it is simply a guard which any man is entitled to keep on his own premises to protect him from violence, if he thinks it necessary and is willing to go to the expense. But if the country should be carried much further on the road to mediæval anarchy, and the law of the land and its ministers be brought into still greater contempt, these private armies would not remain shut up in the yards or warehouses or mansions of their employers, while demagogues stimulated attacks on them. They would sally out, mediæval fashion, and twist the necks of the Clevelands, and Hills, and Greens, and Oglesbys in very summary fashion. The fun Labor has now in battering and threatening people with impunity is due entirely to the fact that law-abiding habits are still strong among us. But they would not survive for a great while the strain which Labor is putting on them; and whenever the community gets thoroughly tired of Labor and the demagogues, it will give those who like anarchy and private war a dose of them which many generations will remember.

THE REORGANIZATION OF THE WEATHER BUREAU.

THE death of General Hazen will call forth very general discussion as to the selection of his successor, and will necessarily bring the question of the civil reorganization of the Weather Bureau again prominently before the public. There ought to be no division of opinion on two points: first, that the director of the Weather Bureau should be qualified for his position by a scientific knowledge of meteorology as well as by executive ability; second, that the work of observing and predicting the weather is eminently a peaceful and in no sense a military art. We do not look for any popular support of the military opinion which proclaims, officially, that "the whole theory of the organization is, that the entire force of the Signal Corps shall be available for immediate service in case of war." What the people at large wish is simply the announcement of the "approach and force of storms throughout the United States, for the benefit of commerce and agriculture" in time of peace. Soldiers are not needed for this work, and the attempt to give the weather observers of the Signal Corps a military character has been chiefly of use in keeping the service under the control of army officers.

It is not a little curious to remark that the more notable changes introduced in the administration of the Bureau by Gen. Hazen have been distinctly civil in their nature, and this in spite of his frequently repeated statement that the Signal Corps was maintained for military service. Nothing shows this better than the assistance he has extended to the formation of State weather services, which are entirely voluntary and non-military in their nature. These are now organized in many of the States, and their number is at present increasing almost every month. They excite much popular interest, especially in the South and West (where newspapers are slow to reach the out-of-town population), on account of the greater publicity they give to the weather predictions by means of flag displays at railway or telegraph stations. The plan of fostering intimate relations between the general and local ser-

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vices is really admirable, but it is eminently a civil relation, not in the least aided by military manners. Indeed, when we review the history of the Signal Service, nothing is more distinct than the steady increase of its civil and scientific sides, so that now the share that army work has in it is left merely as an incongruous, unpleasant feature in the background. It might well be omitted altogether. A review of this change in its attitude is pertinent here.

The Signal Service, as a separate organization, may be traced back to 1860, when there was added to the staff of the army "one signal officer, with the rank, pay, and allowances of a major of cavalry." In 1866 the Chief Signal Officer was given the rank of colonel of cavalry, and his corps consisted of six officers and not more than one hundred non-commissioned officers and privates, detailed from the battalion of engineers for the performance of military duty. In 1870 the Chief Signal Officer was directed to secure meteorological observations in order "to give notice on the northern lakes and on the sea-coast, by magnetic telegraph and marine signals, of the approach and force of storms." The Signal Corps came into public notice with this order, and Gen. Myer earned the lasting remembrance of the people by his energy in instituting our weather service. In 1871 the limitation of the work to the lakes and sea-coast was omitted in the appropriation bill, and in 1872 announcement was required of the "probable approach and force of storms throughout the United States for the benefit of commerce and agriculture." In 1880 the Chief Signal Officer was given the rank and pay of a brigadier-general. During the decade 1870-1880 the number of men in the corps was largely increased. The appropriations for the support of the service run as follows:

Year.	Observations and Reports.	Telegraph Lines.	Deficiency.
1870	$15,000		
1871	102,451		
1872	250,000		
1873	296,825		
1874	355,325		$45,000
1875	415,000	$88,000	55,000
1876	300,000	45,000	
1877	300,000	22,000	
1878	350,000	95,000	
1879	375,000	90,000	
1880	375,000	75,000	
1881	375,000	75,000	
1882	280,000	40,000	

Up to this date the pay of the men had not been included in the estimates, but came from the Army bill; hereafter it is included, and the appropriations for 1883 were $963,674,57; for 1884, $926,132.08; for 1885, $904,080.

It cannot be supposed for a moment that this enormous growth of the service was in any way an expression of the interest of the people or of Congress in the organization of a corps "available for immediate service in case of war." The recommendations of boards of trade, of chambers of commerce, and of agricultural societies have never been based on the desirableness of instruction in military signalling. Yet in the reports of the Chief Signal Officer, military signalling has been continually given the first place and the chief emphasis under the head of "Instruction," and meteorological studies have been secondary and subordinate, although the meteorological work of the corps now so vastly exceeds the military work. The importance of an experienced signal corps in every well-organized army is not disputed. This question is not in discussion in the public mind: it is taken for granted that it will be properly attended to in the regular army, along with infantry drill, cavalry manœuvres, and artillery practice, each in its proper place. It is a mere accident, partly historical, partly verbal, that there is any present connection of matters so dissimilar as weather prediction and military drill. There is now a good opportunity of dissolving this connection altogether. During the life of the late Chief Signal Officer it would have been an ungracious task to remove him after he had given his whole energies, with good result, to the improvement of the service.

There is competent opinion in favor of a civil organization of the Weather Bureau. In 1884, a committee of the National Academy of Sciences recommended, in response to Congressional inquiry, that the meteorological work of the Signal Service should be put under the general control of a non-military meteorological bureau, to which should be transferred so much of the present *personnel* and functions of the Signal Office as is not necessary to the military duties of that office. The joint Congressional Commission on the Signal Service and other scientific bureaus of the Government reported last summer, after an extended investigation, that the work of the Weather Bureau is civil work in its nature and character, and that military restraint is not necessary to its success. Three members of the Commission were in favor of gradual and three in favor of immediate transfer to a civil bureau. In 1884 the Secretary of War, Mr. Lincoln, stated that he entirely agreed with the Committee of the National Academy in their recommendation. He had, two years earlier, advised "that a civil establishment to conduct the Weather Bureau service be organized." It is to be hoped that the present Secretary of War will exert the weight of his opinion to the same end.

MR. EDMUNDS'S REPORT ON THE FISHERY QUESTION.

THE report submitted by Senator Edmunds on the fishery question, together with the bill which has since passed the Senate, appears to us in the main to be fair and reasonable, and not at all likely to stir up bad feeling with Great Britain. The substance of it is, that we make no complaint of the denial to us of any right not secured to us either by the Treaty of 1818 or by the recognized law of nations, but that when any rights arising under the treaty or the law of nations are denied to us in the waters of British North America, then the President of the United States may in his discretion, and by issuing his proclamation to that effect, exclude the vessels of British North America from our ports, except in stress of weather or for the procurement of necessary supplies, and may also prohibit trade between British North America and the United States.

The latter clause of the bill is of questionable utility and more than questionable justice, since its effect is to punish citizens of the United States for the misdeeds of the Canadian authorities. The clause authorizes the President, if he thinks proper, "to deny entry into any port or place of the United States of fresh fish or salt fish or any other product of said dominions, or other goods coming from said dominions to the United States. The President may in his discretion apply such proclamation to any part or all of the foregoing named subjects, and may qualify, limit, and renew such proclamation to any part or to all of the foregoing named subjects, and may qualify, limit, and renew such proclamation from time to time as he may deem necessary to the full and just execution of the purposes of this act." Under the terms of the bill the President could prevent the collection of debts due from Canadians to Americans by prohibiting the receipt of the goods with which such debts are commonly paid, and without which in many cases they could not be paid. The phrase, "any other goods coming from said dominions to the United States," includes, for instance, barley, lumber, furs, live stock—in fact, every conceivable thing that constitutes trade, whether the same be transported by ship, by railway, or by wagon. It applies to the traffic between Winnipeg and St. Paul, as well as between St. John and Boston. This is a very sweeping measure, when we consider that it punishes the American citizen equally with the Canadian, and that it inoculates all the healthy departments of trade with the fishery sore. It may be said that as it is all left to the discretion of the President, no harm is likely to come from it. But is it wise to give the President the discretion to admit horses from Canada and exclude barley, to admit salt and exclude timber, and to transpose the lists of admitted and excluded products—that is, to make and unmake private fortunes, at his own discretion, and as often as he thinks best?

This part of the bill strikes us as being incongruous and unnecessary. The fish catch and the fish trade are a mere wart upon the commerce of Canada and the United States, and there is no reason why the whole system should suffer on account of the wart. Aside from this clause, the bill affords appropriate remedies for any injustice that may be committed against us. There will be necessarily some dispute as to what privileges belong to us under the law of nations. Those belonging to us under the Treaty of 1818 are more easily susceptible of definition. Mr. Edmunds's report implies that the right to buy bait is not secured to us either by treaty or by public law. As regards the headland question, the contention is that where a bay or opening in the coast is more than six miles wide the right to fish at any point three miles distant from the nearest land cannot be controverted. This would seem to be the proper definition of the "marine league," but it is contrary to our own interpretation of it. The adoption of it now implies the reversal of our own decisions, and it is perhaps as well that they should be reversed; for when we attempt to claim exclusive jurisdiction from headland to headland along so extensive a coast as ours, it becomes a matter wholly of private judgment whether the claim includes all the space inside a line drawn from Cape Cod to Cape Hatteras, or only the space between Newport and Montauk Point, or something even less comprehensive. The spirit of the report is peaceable and non-aggressive, and this is of more importance than the specific measure recommended.

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LABORERS' ALLOTMENT GROUNDS.

WARWICKSHIRE, January 5, 1887.

DURING the last two or three years every newspaper, every platform has been ringing with the 'land question"· and a number of misleading statements have been made in the course of the discussion, especially on the question of laborers' allotments. These seem to come chiefly from persons who either predicate the condition of the English laborer from their study chairs, without actual, every-day acquaintance with him, or who have come down among us on a mission to extract facts about themselves from the most suspicious and reticent class in the country. We think, therefore, that it may not be unprofitable to describe the working of the allotment system in an ordinary case which lies within our own experience. The facts can be verified by any one who cares to do so.

The village of which we speak lies about three miles from Leamington and as many from Warwick. All the land in the parish (3,468 acres) belongs to Lord ——, with the exception of about fourteen acres. It is divided into sixteen farms of varying size, and about thirty-seven acres are devoted to cottage gardens and allotments. There are 107 cottages belonging to Lord ——, each with a piece of garden ground attached to it. Twelve of these cottages have one-eighth of an acre each; ten have very small patches; eighty-five have gardens of somewhat less than one-eighth of an acre. The average rent for cottage and garden is £3 10s. per annum. None are over £4, many as low as £2. The soil is excellent—a rich loam on gravel in most of the gardens. Some parts of the farms are stiff clay. The gardens about the cottages are planted with apples, pears, plums, and small fruits, besides vegetables of all kinds. Into every available corner standard rose trees, clumps of dahlias, holyhocks, sunflowers, or tall white lilies are thrust; while the narrow paths between the fruit bushes are bordered with pinks, carnations, wallflowers, and all sorts of uncommon, old-fashioned perennials. Every inch of ground is utilized. The result of fruit and flower against the 250-year-old half-timbered, red-and-black, or black-and-white houses is charmingly picturesque to the passer-by, and highly profitable to the owners.

Just beyond the last houses at the top of the gentle rise on which the village clusters round its ancient sandstone church, lie the allotments. They are of two kinds. First there are the old garden allotments, which have been in existence for forty years. This fact, by the way, disposes of the claims of certain agitators who would have people believe that until their voices were heard in behalf of the laborer, allotments were unknown. This lot contains 11 acres, 1 rod, 11 perches, and is divided into seventy-seven allotments. Their average size is 23½ perches, at an average rent of 9s. 11d. each: gross rental £38 3s. 6d., about £3 16s. an acre. In addition to these, a field of 14 acres, 1 rod, 25 perches was let out a year and a half ago in larger allotments. Four of these are each one acre, and the remaining twenty-one about one-half an acre each; the rent being £2 an acre.

This field had been for some years in rough clover grass ("seeds," as we call it in Warwickshire). The landlord broke it up and prepared it thoroughly for the tenants. On this land, last year, the main crop was wheat, which gave a very fine yield, at the rate of from thirteen to seventeen bags to the acre. Wheat in Warwickshire is reckoned by the bag of three bushels; seventeen bags, therefore, equal a yield of fifty-one bushels to the acre. Besides wheat, the tenants grew on the ground they had been able to trench potatoes, cabbages, and a few turnips, carrots, etc.

The wheat was harvested well, and threshed on the ground. The man on whose piece the threshing machine stood was paid sixpence apiece by his neighbors for the traffic on his land. The wheat was ground, and used at home. The straw was either kept as fodder for the pigs, or sold. These new allotments are now being trenched by hand from end to end. Some have already been planted with winter wheat, which promises well. The ground—a stiffish clay—is being thoroughly cleaned; and one tenant, the rat-catcher of the neighborhood, who takes special pride in the look of his land, told us that he had harnessed himself to the harrow and harrowed his whole patch, to avoid the holes a horse's hoofs would have made on the newly broken soil.

The garden allotments are splendidly cultivated. Rows of small fruits, celery, cabbages, cauliflower, potatoes, peas, beans, sweet herbs, with standard roses, pinks, and carnations in among them, and here and there a plum, damson, or apple tree, fill the patches on each side of a broad grass road that runs the whole length of the gardens. On Friday evening, in the summer, the village is worth a visit. Men and women, with huge market-baskets or wheelbarrows filled to overflowing with fruit and vegetables, come trooping in from the gardens, while great trays of cut flowers lie at every cottage door, ready to be tied up into tasteful nosegays. On Saturday morning the road to Leamington swarms with women carrying heavy baskets, or pushing little wicker perambulators full of fruit and flowers, and the village donkey-carts are loaded to a perilous extent. There is no market in Leamington, but all the garden produce, down to the smallest bunch of parsley, finds a ready sale among the residents in the town, who are only too glad to get country fruit, flowers, and vegetables fresh from the gardens, without the medium of the greengrocer's shop.

A great deal of the actual work of the gardens is done by the women, and they make a very good thing of it. We could mention many instances in which a woman has paid the whole year's rent for her cottage by the fruit she has sold in a single week; and when the husband is out of work, the garden produce becomes of course the only means of subsistence for the family.

There is, however, another side to the picture. About thirty years ago an immense impetus was given to the cultivation of gardens and allotments in this village by the starting here of the first of those cottage-garden flower shows which have since become so popular an institution in England. From that time it has been observed that the homes have suffered. The mothers, always in the gardens or on the road to Leamington, have but little time to clean and mend and make at home. The children's dirty faces and dirtier pinafores are a constant eyesore to those who have been accustomed to the cleanliness and tidiness of other parts of England. The cottages, too, are often untidy. The needlework of the horticultural mothers cannot compare with that of the older generation, and the result is that ready-made clothes, "cheap and nasty," are taking the place more and more every year of the serviceable home-made smocks and shirts of the grandmother's day.

Being on excellent terms of friendship with the laborers and tenants under the same landlord, we have had ample opportunity of finding out their opinions on the land question, and we cannot do better than repeat the substance of a conversation we had some eighteen months ago with a particularly clever, witty young day-laborer—a strong Radical to boot, as are a large proportion of our villagers. He had been out of work for some time, and was glad to take a job of road-mending, though he looked on it as a terrible descent in the social scale.

We were discussing public affairs, and I said, laughing, "How about your three acres and your cow?"

"If you gave me three acres to-morrow," was the answer, "I should be a ruined man. I have got a quarter of an acre in the allotments. And perhaps some day I may have another if I get on. But a quarter of an acre is as much as a man like me, with a wife and two children, can manage. I must depend on my daily wages, and who is to look after the land while I am at work? My mother and brother have an acre between them. [She keeps a carrier's cart which the son drives.] And with her pigs and the horse she does very well with it. But a man like me can't live off one or off three acres. If you give them to me you ruin me."

This man's opinion is that of all the more intelligent and thoughtful laborers in the village. When farmers were better off than they are now, the men used to be paid—as they are still in some parts of England—by the week, wet or fine. Now they are only paid on the days when work can be done. On the off-days, and when the men are out of work—a very common occurrence now, owing to a variety of causes—they turn to their allotments. "They are the saving of us," a laborer said to us the other day.

But, as our friend said, it is out of the question that they should make a livelihood off their allotments without regular work; and with a fair amount of weekly work, a quarter of an acre is quite as much as one man can cultivate single-handed. The holders of the acre lots are not day laborers, but men who have a little money. One owns two or three cottages, and devotes his whole time to his gardens, with a son to help him. Another is a jobbing carpenter, who has a son to help in his trade and on the allotment. Another is a jobbing gardener, who keeps a small beershop licensed for beer, "not to be drunk on the premises," and employs a man or boy most of the year. The carrier and her son share another acre.

It may be argued that the village we are describing is hardly a fair sample, on account of the ready market for all kinds of garden produce in Leamington. But we can point to numbers of villages in Warwickshire, far removed from any town, where the allotment system has worked well for the last twenty-five or thirty years, under all sorts of landlords, rich and poor, Liberal and Conservative. There is not the sale for flowers that we have here, but wheat, barley, oats, potatoes, some kinds of vegetables, and all fruits are always salable or usable, and have proved to be profitable on such allotments as those we mention. As far as our personal experience goes, we have never known a case in which, if men really wanted a bit of allotment ground, they could not get it; and this was the case long before Mr. Joseph Arch's name had ever been heard beyond his native village, which happens to lie next to ours. The landlords would be foolish, indeed, if they were not willing to let their land at such high rents to such excellent tenants.

If the allotment system should ever be extended into some scheme of numbers of small holdings, the laborers themselves predict the result. In 1885 many men in this village positively believed that if the Liberal party came into office, they would each be given, out of hand, those mythical three acres, with or without the yet more mythical cow. "What would you do with them?" they were asked. "Sell 'em," was the prompt reply. And the elder and wiser men in the village shook their heads, and told us exactly where those three acres, whether freehold or leasehold, would go—into the hands of two or perhaps three enterprising men in the place,

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whom he could name: men who have ambition, industry, intelligence, and a little money, and who would at any cost buy up the lots of their less thrifty and intelligent neighbors. So that the turn of the wheel that was to bring about peasant proprietors, would only bring about a fresh crop of land-owners or large tenants.

R. G. K.

A RISING FRENCH CRITIC.

PARIS, January 14, 1887.

NOT far from the Pantheon is a deserted and silent street, the Rue d'Ulm, which reminds one of the streets painted with an almost painful accuracy by Balzac. In this street is the École Normale, the great school which furnishes the French University with its best professors. The examinations for entrance are difficult, and the successful competitors remain four years in the school, where they receive instruction from the first men of the Faculty of Letters and of the Faculty of Sciences. With very few exceptions, the pupils of the school are very poor; they have to make their way by their own efforts; they live almost in seclusion; and when they come out, they are admirably trained—they are admirably versed in the dead languages and in the French language. Many of them, instead of accepting a modest professorship in the provinces, try the career of letters, and generally they begin with journalism. They are more or less envious of their predecessors—of Prévost-Paradol, of Caro, of Rigault, of Taine, of About, of Francisque Sarcey. All these said in the days of their youth, as young Rastignac did when he looked down on the great Parisian ocean from the height of Montmartre: "À nous deux maintenant." Many "Normalians" have become famous; some have become ministers, like Beulé, who wrote the history of the Roman Cæsars. The Institute, the Chamber of Deputies, the Senate, are not so far from the lonely Rue d'Ulm.

Journalism is always tempting to a young man. Some of our best papers are readily open to young Normalians, since the editors are aware that they really know how to write. The younger they are the more they are still under the influence of a strong literary discipline, ready for everything, full of information, sharp, clever, ardent, curious of life. They have been fed with the lion's marrow. They are generally brilliant writers, but sometimes they are nothing more than artists of style; they have no experience of the world, no acquaintance with the daily life of the province and the city. They are like the *rhéteurs* of antiquity; they are like brilliant stars shooting through the night and often expiring in the night. Few now remember Assollant, also a Normalian, who inspired great hopes at first, and who died the other day, after having consumed his life in writing newspaper articles and novels. The best men even who come out of the École Normale, find it difficult to acquire the experience which is the lot of the man of the world, of the landlord, of the lawyer. Prévost-Paradol acquired his political education in the salon of M. Thiers, to whom he was a sort of Benjamin, and wrote every morning in the *Débats* what he had heard the night before at the Place St. Georges, with that peculiar charm and wit which was his own; but Prévost-Paradol made a terrible mistake when he accepted office from Napoleon III. —a mistake which cost him his life.

About went to Rome on leaving the École Normale, and afterwards to Greece (a certain number of pupils are sent every year to the French schools maintained by the Government in the Italian capital and at Athens). We owe to this circumstance 'Tolla' and the 'Roi des Montagnes,' the two best novels of About's, written at a time when his talent was still in its freshness. About also was seized with political ambition; he became a journalist after the war, and M. Thiers found in him one of his ardent supporters, but did not recompense his efforts. About said once, speaking of Thiers: "He offered me everything, I accepted everything; he gave me nothing." The last years of About were spent in the work of journalism, and, to the astonishment of all, in speculations of all sorts. His ambition was to become a great financier, but he might have said as Talleyrand said: "I have always lost money at the Bourse, because I always knew everything before anybody."

Among the younger and more successful Normalians we can cite now M. Jules Lemaitre. His reputation was made almost in a day. He published a series of critical articles in the *Revue Bleue*, which attracted so much attention that the *Journal des Débats* offered him at once the succession to J. J. Weiss (also a Normalian), who wrote its theatrical feuilleton during the past few years, and is now prevented from doing so by illness. More than that, the *Figaro*, the great *Figaro*, opened its columns to him—those columns which to many young aspirants appear as the ne plus ultra of literary glory. The name of M. Jules Lemaitre, unknown a short time ago, will very soon become a popular name. It may be that M. Lemaitre will sink under his new reputation, that he will rapidly disappear in the Parisian vortex; it may also be that he will wear well. His two first volumes are certainly youthful, but they have nevertheless a certain solidity. He has, of course, chosen for his studies contemporary writers. He might have left some behind, in the cold, in the dubious light of a purely ephemeral notoriety; he ought to have turned away from some others, who have only won notoriety by the abandonment of all the rules of common decency. He has admitted to his gallery names which are entirely unknown outside of the smallest horizon; but we have read with interest and with pleasure his essays on Théodore de Banville, Sully-Prudhomme, Coppée, Leconte de Lisle, the poets; on Daudet, Renan, Zola; on Francisque Sarcey; on J. J. Weiss. M. Lemaitre is terribly modern. Speaking of Bossuet, he says:

"Frankly, I always have to make an effort to read Bossuet. It is true, that when I have read a few pages, I feel that he is, as we say nowadays, *très fort*, but he gives me no pleasure, while often when I open a book of to-day or of yesterday, it befalls me that I shudder easily, or am penetrated with pleasure to the marrow of my bones—so much do I like this literature of the second half of the nineteenth century, so intelligent, so uneasy, so mad, so sorrowful, so odd, so subtle. I love it even in its affectations, its ridiculousness, its exaggerations, of which I feel the germ in me and which I can make mine. And if we speak seriously, let us make our accounts. If perhaps Corneille, Racine, Bossuet have to-day no equivalents, has the 'grand siècle' the equivalent of Lamartine, of Victor Hugo, of Musset, of Michelet, of George Sand, of Sainte-Beuve, of Flaubert, of Renan? Is it my fault if I prefer reading a chapter of Renan's to a sermon of Bossuet's, the 'Nabab' to the 'Princesse de Clèves,' and a comedy of Meilhac and Halévy's to a comedy of Molière's?"

Comparisons are odious, and M. Lemaitre has a right to his preference. His enthusiasm, however, is perhaps a little too accommodating, and among the names which he cites in this passage there are certainly a few which ought not to have been cited. But this sincere love of modern literature gives a certain charm and color to his criticism. We often describe well what we like well.

The article on Renan made much noise at the time it appeared. Lemaitre belongs to the school of realists who wish to see before they describe anything. He was not content with reading Renan's books, he went to his lectures; he describes the public of the famous professor:

"Many old gentlemen, who resemble all old gentlemen; students, ladies, sometimes Englishwomen, who have come because M. Renan is a part of the curiosities of Paris. . . . He enters and is applauded. He thanks with a nod of his head, with a good-natured look. He is fat, short, red, with long features, long gray hair; a big nose, a fine mouth; moving all about as in one piece his large head between his shoulders. He seems happy to live, and he explains with gayety the formation of the historical *Corpus* which contains the Pentateuch."

The familiarity of Renan's exposition and explanations amuses M. Lemaitre—the slang which he sometimes uses, the simplicity of his manner. He calls him a "Labiche exégète" (Labiche is the author of some comical plays at the Palais Royal). He is somewhat disappointed also, and wonders how a man who has gone through such a terrible moral crisis can be so unconcerned, so little transcendental. He compares his face to some of those which Gustave Doré drew in his 'Rabelais' or in the 'Contes Drolatiques.' What is the secret of this gayety? In a speech which he made at Quimper, on the 17th of August, 1883, Renan said: "A critic reproached me some time ago [it was M. Scherer of the *Temps*] with my good humor as if it were hypocrisy, and seeing its true causes. Well, I will tell you its causes. I am very gay because, having amused myself very little when I was young, I have kept all the freshness of my illusions; but, what is more serious, I am gay because I am sure that I have made a good use of my life. I am sure of it."

It must be very comfortable to feel so much security. Lamennais, who went through the same ordeal as Renan, did not feel it.

"Pascal," says M. Lemaitre, "became mad, M. Renan is gay! If he had ever completely altered his faith, he might have the serenity which often goes with strong convictions. But this philosopher has preserved the imagination of a Catholic. He still loves what he has left. He has remained a priest; he gives even to negation the tone of Christian mysticism. His brain is a disendowed (*désaffectée*) cathedral (the word is Alphonse Daudet's). You can fill it with hay; you can deliver lectures in it; it remains a church."

The essay on Zola is one of the best. Lemaitre dares to say that Zola is not a true realist, and that he magnifies and transforms reality. Zola pretends to be a "naturalist," but "he is also an epic poet and a pessimist poet," if you call a poet a writer who, in view of a certain idea, transforms reality. His pessimism is frightful. In his first writings he at times glorified nature and her works. In the latest he seems to hate and to be afraid of her. He tries to insult human pride in every possible manner. He takes pleasure in showing original sin not in the spirit of a moralist, of a priest, of a philosopher, but in the spirit of a physiologist, of a vivisector. He surrounds vice and crime with the most horrible, disgusting, repulsive, and ridiculous circumstances. He degrades love; he sees in man and woman miserable brutes. He lives in a *clinique*. Bestiality and imbecility are in his eyes the two great characteristics of mankind. "But," says M. Lemaitre, "it would be great injustice to accuse M. Zola of immorality, and to believe that he speculates in the bad instincts of the reader." Zola remains grave; if he enters into certain details it is because he thinks it necessary.

"As he pretends to paint reality, and as he is persuaded that reality is ignoble, he shows it as such, with the scruples of a soul which is delicate in its own fashion, which has no desire to deceive us, and which wishes to give the full measure of truth. Sometimes he forgets himself—he makes a great picture from which the ignominy of the flesh is absent; and suddenly he is seized with remorse, he remembers that the beast is everywhere, and, so as not to fail in his duty, when you least expect it, he introduces some indecent detail as a memento of the universal corruption."

Many refuse to Zola what, after all, preserves the work of art, style. Lemaitre believes them to

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be unjust, and he defends the style of Zola—"a magnifying style, without shades, often without precision, but eminently calculated, by its monotonous exaggerations and its multiplied insistence, to give greatness to the great *ensembles* of things concrete."

Correspondence.

THE SHARPLES PORTRAITS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Now that there is some discussion as to the genuineness of the Sharples portraits, the following statement may possess some interest:

These portraits were exhibited once before in this country—I cannot remember the precise date, but it must have been near the time of, or before, the Centennial. Among other places, they were shown in Cincinnati. While they were on exhibition there, two of the portraits were partially cut from their frames, and it was considered evident that an attempt to steal them had been made. I saw the portraits shortly after (I think, the next day), and the manner of the cutting convinced me that it had not been done by a thief, but by some one who had an interest in advertising the pictures. Two of the pictures were cut, and both were cut in the same way. In each canvas there were four long slits, one on each side, *not quite meeting at the corners*, so that there was the largest possible amount of cutting that should still leave the canvas firmly attached to its stretcher. Any man who has ever cut a canvas from its stretcher (as what artist has not?) knows how it is done. One begins at one corner and *cuts around* until he gets back to the corner he started from, and the work is done. Now, if the cutting of these so-called Sharples portraits was done by a thief, he must have made four cuts in one canvas, still leaving it firmly attached at all four corners, and then have gone to the other portrait and done the same thing, and then have been interrupted, having done the utmost amount of cutting, with no result. Or, if there were two thieves, each of them must have gone to work in the same awkward way, and have got to the same point when the interruption came.

The improbability of either of these suppositions, together with the fact that no one ever explained how, when, or by whom the attempt could have been made, served to convince me that the supposed theft was a mere advertising "dodge"; and I have never had much faith since then in the authenticity or value of the portraits.

Kenyon Cox.

New York, January 20, 1887.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The report of the Massachusetts Historical Society upon the Sharples portraits has attracted widespread attention. In it the authenticity of the pictures is impeached upon the strength of the written testimony alone. It does not weigh any evidence which may be derived from an examination of the pictures themselves. Such an examination would at once convince any competent observer that the collection of portraits now exhibiting in the country under the name of Sharples cannot possibly be all from the same hand. It is true that the explanatory volume acknowledges that several of the ladies' portraits were worked upon by distinguished artists with a view to beautifying and making more acceptable, yet all are claimed to be at bottom the work of the one painter. In truth they bear every mark of being the work of several men.

The portrait of the wife of Alex. Hamilton is so like Maclise that that distinguished artist must have painted it outright, instead of merely touching it up, as Macready's letter says. Of the others it is not difficult to assign them to three or four different hands. The three men's portraits—those of Priestly, Fulton, and Marshall—resemble one another, and may all have been painted by Sharples, though they are very different in style from the Sharples pastels which hang in Independence Hall. But if Sharples painted them, or any of those in the general collection, then assuredly he did not paint the Washington portraits. In these the handling of the brush, the quality of the color, and, indeed, all technical details, are unlike anything in the other pictures. Not only so; the painters' conception of what a portrait should be is different. While all the others are more or less flimsy and flat, painted with little pigment and much oil, and with a constant striving after the doll-like prettiness much in vogue thirty or forty years ago, the Washington portraits are massive and round, painted with a large body of color and considerable skill. One of the heads of Washington is in profile, as is that of his wife. These profiles are erect and rigid, relieved against a dark, opaque background. It seems scarcely possible that a man who could paint so good a head, if working directly from nature, would have contented himself with this upright rigidity. It, however, corresponds exactly with what we find in the unquestioned portraits in pastel by Sharples, of which many exist.

The full face of Washington is undoubtedly from the hand of the same painter. It, however, represents a much younger man, and is in military uniform. It is well and strongly modelled, with a full brush and a good deal of skill. It at once suggests the bust made by Houdon about ten years before Sharples came to America, and a close examination of the two shows a striking resemblance.

A careful consideration of the evidence afforded by the pictures, aided by our knowledge of facts which are unquestioned, brings us to the conclusion that the profile portraits of Washington and his wife are copies by an unknown but skilful hand, from originals, either in pastel or oil, made by Sharples from life; and that the full face is the work of the same painter, who probably took for foundation a sketch by Sharples, but in finishing used the bust by Houdon. This would account for the alleged mistake in the color of the eyes, and for the strange lack of vitality, very observable in a head otherwise so well executed.

Pictor.

PERVERSION OF HISTORY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Will you allow me to call attention to the extraordinary way in which Messrs. Hay and Nicolay, the authors of the Life of Lincoln now appearing in the *Century*, have, in the January number, glossed over the acquisition of Texas? However great may be the value of Texas to the United States, and however worthy may be the Texans of to-day, the fact remains that the annexation of Texas was the consummation of a gigantic land robbery, planned and carried out in the interest of slavery, and practised upon a friendly but weaker neighbor. This national crime, of which even at this day all patriotic Americans should feel heartily ashamed, is thus described by Messrs. Hay and Nicolay:

"It was impossible to defeat or greatly delay the annexation of Texas, and it showed a certain lack of sagacity on the part of the Whigs not to recognize this fact. Here was a great empire offering itself to us, a State which had gained its independence, and built itself into a certain order and thrift through American valor and enterprise. She offered us a magnificent estate of 376,000 square miles of territory, all of it valuable and much of it of unsurpassed richness and fertility. Even those portions of it once condemned as desert now contribute to the markets of the world vast stores of wool and cotton, herds of cattle and flocks of sheep. Not only were these material advantages of great attractiveness to the public mind, but many powerful sentimental considerations reinforced the claim of Texas. The Texans were not an alien people. The few inhabitants of that vast realm were mostly Americans, who had occupied and subdued a vacant wilderness. The heroic defence of the Alamo had been made by Travis and David Crockett, whose exploits and death form one of the most brilliant pages of our border history. Fannin and his men, 400 strong, when they laid down their lives at Goliad, had carried mourning into every southwestern State: and when, a few days later, Houston and his 800 raw levies defeated and destroyed the Mexican army at San Jacinto, captured Santa Anna, the Mexican President, and, with American thrift, instead of giving him the death he merited for his cruel murder of unarmed prisoners, saved him to make a treaty with, the whole people recognized something of kinship in the unaffected valor with which these borderers died, and the humorous shrewdness with which they bargained, and felt as if the victory over the Mexicans was their own. Under these conditions the annexation, sooner or later, was inevitable. . . . Whenever a region contiguous to the United States becomes filled with Americans, it is absolutely certain to come under the American flag."

Strip off the glowing words that cover them, and you find but two arguments in the above quotation, greed and revenge—the one worthy of an Ahab, the other of a burglar whose pal has been shot in the act of housebreaking. Compare with this the views of an impartial foreigner, expressed in 1862, when the slaveholders' triumph of nearly twenty years before was bearing bloody fruit. Prof. Cairnes says in his 'Slave Power':

"The annexation of Texas . . . has long passed into a by-word for unprovoked and unscrupulous plunder of a weak by a strong Power. The designs of its authors have always been notorious. . . . Texas, as all the world knows, was before its annexation to the Union a province of Mexico—a country at peace with the Union, and anxious to cultivate with it friendly relations. Mexico, however, was a weak State, still fresh from the throes of revolution. The district in question was one of great fertility, possessing in this respect, as well as in its climate and river communications, remarkable advantages for slave settlement; it was, moreover, but thinly peopled, and was separated by an immense distance from the seat of government. So early as 1821, while Spanish authority was still maintained in Mexico, 300 families from Louisiana were permitted to settle in this tempting region under the express condition that they should submit to the laws of the country. . . . As the colony increased in numbers and wealth, it became evident to the slave-owners of the neighboring States that they had a natural right to the territory. It offered an admirable field for slave cultivation; it was in their immediate proximity; of all claimants they were the strongest and 'smartest'; in short, they wanted the country, and felt themselves able to take it, and they resolved it should be theirs. 'Manifest destiny' beckoned them forward, and they prepared, with reverent submission to the decrees of Providence, to fulfil their fate."

Going on to speak of the wild-cat land speculation, and manufacture of fictitious titles, which was used to stir up interests hostile to Mexican rule in Texas, and the attempts of the Texan settlers to evade the Mexican laws against slavery, Prof. Cairnes says:

"The project of dismembering a neighboring republic that slaveholders and slaves might overspread a region which had been consecrated to a free population, was discussed in the newspapers as coolly as if it were a matter of obvious right and unquestioned humanity. The plot having been carried to this point, the consummation of the plunder was easy. A conspiracy was hatched; a rebellion organized; filibusters were introduced from the border States; and a population which, at the commencement of the outbreak, did not number 20,000 persons, asserted its independence, was recognized by the Federal Government, and with little delay annexed to the Union."

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Now, in regard to this matter, it is not too much to say that Prof. Cairnes's statements are history, and Messrs. Hay and Nicolay's are not. This might be unimportant were it not that many thousands of the *Century's* readers have grown up since the annexation of Texas, and are likely to take the truth of Messrs. Hay and Nicolay's statements for granted. Then, too, when the Whig party is criticised for a lack of political wisdom in thinking with Lowell,

"Slavery, the earth-born cyclops, fellest of the giant brood,
Sons of brutish Force and Darkness, who have drenched the earth with blood,
Famished in his self-made desert, blinded by our purer day,
Gropes in *yet unblasted regions* for his miserable prey;
Shall we guide his gory fingers where our helpless children play?"

—such a calling of evil, good, and good, evil, should not pass unnoticed. B.

PHILADELPHIA, January 22, 1887.

LEGISLATION FOR THE WORKING CLASSES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: You are, I know, strongly opposed to anything that savors of the paternal in government; it did not need the humorous remarks appended to my previous letter to inform me as to that. Nevertheless, I have always believed that one man's rights end where another's begin, and that it is the business of Government to enforce this principle thoroughly. You would yourself be indignant, I think, if a hotel-keeper allowed you ignorantly to sleep in a room previously occupied by one having a contagious disease. But suppose you knew little about the danger of contagion, and that the choice lay between taking that room or sleeping in the street; you might, perhaps, occupy that room even if not wholly ignorant of its danger. But would that excuse the landlord for not having had the room disinfected?

Now, these two cases are exactly parallel to those of poor workpeople who undertake work that is either dangerous in itself or by its surroundings: either they do it in ignorance, or, not being wholly ignorant, they have virtually no choice—it is that or hunger and exposure. What I say is simply that the State should interfere and require employers not to expose work-people to avoidable dangers—dangers to which they would not willingly expose themselves. I shall make my case plainer and stronger by a few examples.

At a factory in my neighborhood there is much filing of iron. The filers get their lungs filled with angular bits of iron: consumption follows, sickness, and death. The evil might be averted by the use of magnets, as is done in some factories; it is even found that the iron collected almost pays the interest on the extra plant. The owner of the factory in question has had his attention called to the matter, but refuses to make the change on account of the cost; his workpeople continue to suffer.

A house in my neighborhood is liable to have its cellar overflowed several times a year. This could be prevented by the expenditure of a hundred dollars, which the owner will not make. The house is occupied by a large family of very industrious and worthy workpeople. Last autumn *every member* of the family was down with typhoid. The house continues to be overflowed.

A factory makes red prussiate of potash, largely used in the arts for making one of the varieties of Prussian blue. The work is so dangerous that it has to be carried on in the open air. None of the people employed being willing to work the stirrer, a raw hand (of course ignorant of the danger) was engaged. When I had occasion to visit the factory, this man, at the end of a month's work, had his lungs fatally injured. Two other men, within a few days, had been overcome and rescued at the risk of life, by others.

You will say perhaps that these are exceptional cases. If they were, they should not exist even as exceptions. Unfortunately they are not. Many forms of manufacture are surrounded with danger. Thousands of hands are employed in making phosphorus matches. The vapors of phosphorus produce necrosis of the jaw-bone, which crumbles to pieces. This may be prevented, either by the use of a certain (more expensive) variety of phosphorus, or by very perfect ventilation. Should not one or the other be made obligatory? The manufacture of bichromate of potash, now used in immense quantities in the arts, tends to the production of terrible ulcers, and to the destruction of the septum between the nostrils. In the production of some of the aniline colors, arsenic acid, a very dangerous form of arsenic, is used by the ton.

In all these cases the amount of danger to the workman depends upon the amount of precaution used. Precaution means expense: the man who incurs least can the better compete with other manufacturers. Shall his workpeople be left to his mercy? Are you quite sure that inspectors are as superfluous as you seem to say?

M. C. L.

PHILADELPHIA, January 15, 1887.

DOMESTIC SERVICE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION.

SIR: The trouble with domestic service in this country arises from the fact that the rules governing the intercourse of mistress and house-servant are an importation from Europe, where society is organized on a totally different basis. Europe is a country of classes, differing essentially from each other. Lord and peasant are as distinct breeds as Jersey and Durham cattle; or, if not so in fact, yet society is organized on the supposition that they are, and men fill the positions to which they find themselves born. But among white Americans there are no classes at all. There are individual differences, but nothing more. In the next generation the children of the servants may be the gentlefolk, and the children of the gentlefolk the servants, and such changes are often seen. And yet the average American woman no sooner gets money enough to be able to hire a housemaid than she assumes a manner towards her which implies that she considers the distance between them something immense. And if the mistress be very rich, she acts as though her servants belonged to an inferior order of beings.

If you live in the country, you will find no difficulty in hiring an American man-of-all-work, coachman, or gardener, provided you do not want him to wear livery. If you get the right sort of a man, you will find that he is neither servile nor over-familiar, but he will show by his actions that he does not think that the receiving of your money for his work constitutes you in any respect a superior being to himself. His daughter is willing to work, and would like to earn money, but nothing will induce her to enter your wife's service as cook or housemaid, because it is an implied condition of such service that the servant shall take a distinctly lower social position, be treated as if belonging to a different class, and sacrifice something of self-respect. And so your wife is compelled to put up with the service of ignorant foreigners, who, being in fact of a different class, can be treated as such.

It seems to me that the fact that American girls will not go out to service under present conditions, but prefer much harder and less remunerative labor as seamstresses or teachers, or in factories or shops, is not only not a bad symptom, but is a distinctly good one. It shows that they prefer self-respect to money. The blame for this state of things rests, not upon the servants, but upon the mistresses, and we shall never have a better state of things until ladies learn how to treat their servants.

This does not by any means imply that employers and servants are to live in the same rooms or eat at the same table. Any intelligent hired girl will understand that the employer's family prefer to be by themselves, especially at meal time. But it implies a general change of manner, and, more than that, of feeling. Take the case mentioned by your Philadelphia correspondent, "A. S.," of the lady who went out to service as housemaid, but left the situation because her employers "seemed unconscious of her existence." Such insulting behavior is as much out of place towards your housemaid as towards your lawyer or your doctor, both of whom are, in a sense, your hirelings. Even the kindness and the favor usually shown by mistress to maid generally come in the form of condescension, *de haut en bas*, and are more irritating than downright insults.

The reform will have begun when mistresses learn to say from their hearts of their servants as Job said of his, "Did not he that made me in the womb make him, and did not one fashion us in the womb?" But, of course, it will take two or three generations of changed conduct to convince American girls that domestic service is respectable.

These views are not mere theory. An experience of about forty years in one household conducted on these principles has—I cannot say, avoided all trouble, for then would the millennium have come—but has made life much easier for this household than it has been for the most of our neighbors. R.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The duties of a cook, and still more of a maid-of-all-work, demand more general intelligence and technical skill than are often found among uneducated women, and more muscular strength than is often found among educated women. The requisite intelligence is developed in great numbers of poor girls by the public schools, and if the same schools afforded a thorough muscular training by means of calisthenic exercises and a well-appointed gymnasium, the supply of competent domestics would, no doubt, be greatly increased.

SUE HARRY CLAGETT.

PORTLAND, OREGON, January 16.

COMPARATIVE POLITICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The history of representative government, as I have frequently remarked, is the history of a struggle for power between executive and legislature; and the future of that government depends in great measure upon the solution of the problem of their relations. The observation of political students is, therefore, directed largely, and more or less consciously, to that point, and I ask permission to call in two or three witnesses.

(1.) Dr. Th. Barth is a member of the German Reichstag, and those who were so fortunate as to meet him in this country cannot have failed to be impressed with his broad views and clear intellect. Speaking in his own paper, the Berlin *Nation*, of our politics, he says:

"There is, perhaps, in no country where a parliament exists, a sovereign who, in cases of conflict, stands armed with such power against the parliament as the President of the United States has against the House of Representatives. He is the elected trustee of the people just as much as the Representatives, and, moreover, the trustee

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of the *whole* people. Equipped with this authority he can successfully withstand the will of a parliamentary majority, and is never compelled to sacrifice his ministers to such a majority. How different in constitutional monarchies. The monarch is something permanent and withdrawn from public opinion. The parliament is the only form of constitutionally organized public opinion. In cases of conflict it is only through a dissolution of parliament that the monarch can obtain proof that his advisers represent public opinion better than parliament."

This statement is no doubt true as regards the *negative* power of the President, but unfortunately it is not true of *positive* power, of which, except by illegitimate methods, he has none at all. With all his position as the chosen agent of the whole people, he can only veto, he cannot initiate a policy. He can resist Congress, he cannot compel it. It is just in order to remedy this defect that the admission of the Cabinet to seats in Congress is advocated.

(2.) A correspondent of the London *Times*, speaking of the resignation of Lord Randolph Churchill, says that "it forces on our notice another dangerously weak place in the arrangements of the British Constitution. We have been brought full in view of a further crumbling away of parties. We have been full in view of a serious diminution of our defensive and aggressive forces. We have been in view of a resignation of the Government, and a change in the British Government may have consequences extending from Canadian fishermen to Burmese dacoits. It is one of the most widely extending catastrophes which can occur in the world." Then, after treating of the financial methods of Parliament and our Congress, the writer proceeds:

"Under the French Constitution, which is a muddle of the American Federal and of the British Constitutions, such a Committee as has been sketched proposed the other day a financial policy wholly different from that adopted by the Ministry, and, the Chamber of Deputies having adopted the recommendation of the Committee, the Ministers resigned. Of course, so long as the British Constitution exists, no Government can be prevented from taking the sense of the House of Commons on financial proposals which it considers to be fatal or dangerous to its efficiency and from resigning upon defeat. But it is clear that if the House is ever to resume its financial powers, there ought to be an understanding that differences from the Executive Government not going to the root of policy are not to involve the retirement of Ministries. The sensitiveness as to the confidence of the House of Commons which British statesmen affect, may seem at first sight a tribute to its authority, but in reality it is the means of depriving the House of the greatest part of its power, by attaching to its most important and perhaps most necessary resolutions the penalty of dismissing the whole Executive Government and perhaps convulsing the whole of the empire."

So far from the fixed term of President and Cabinet being an objection to the latter appearing in Congress, it may well prove to be an advantage in that they can fight out their battles with Congress, leaving to the country at the elections to decide between the two. The following extract from the London *Spectator* will speak for itself, if for the words "Lord Salisbury" and "Premier" is read "Cabinet." It turns upon the fact that Lord Salisbury, as a Peer, has no seat in the House of Commons:

"During the whole of the recent crisis, the first and greatest difficulty was obviously this—that while our Government is deliberative and not personal, and while all real power centres in the House of Commons, the head and soul and mouthpiece of that Government could not open his lips within that assembly. Suppose next month Mr. Smith has to talk about an Austrian alliance. The Premier can take no part in debate, can announce no personal resolution, can give no direct aid whatever towards the carrying of the vote on which the fortunes of the empire may depend. A more utterly stupid waste of a man than is committed when Lord Salisbury is locked up in the House of Lords, with a great debate going on in the Commons and all England thirsting to hear what he has to say, cannot be conceived; yet both parties bear it, as if his mouth were closed by some law of nature. Where is there any solid reason why the Premier, if already a member of one House, should not walk into the other and say what he wants to utter and the House wants to hear? That he should not vote is intelligible, for votes represent electors; but that condition does not impair his right to speak in the House, which is not given him as a personal boon, but for the general benefit of the nation. Every wretched little member may talk till the House is sick of him, and long after; but the Premier may not open his mouth, even when war and peace may be hanging on information which he alone fully possesses. It will be observed we are not asking for a great constitutional change. All over the Continent the Ministers of the Crown or the Republic sit *ex officio* in either house from the day they are appointed. The present Minister of France, for example, has never been elected to either Chamber; but we are not asking for such a change as that, though we deem it advisable. We have too deep a respect for British nerves. A mere relaxation of etiquette would, in fact, enable both houses to admit any head of Government to explain anything they wish to have explained; yet we suppose that in this country of sensible men we might as well propose that a jury should consist of thirteen. We felicitate ourselves that we are not as Chinese, but for some ceremonials we would all die." G. B.

BOSTON, January 22, 1887.

RELIGIOUS STATISTICS ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: "Limited knowledge" may be accurate as far as it goes, but it may lead one into very great inaccuracies. You have committed yourself so explicitly on the matter of religious statistics that I am afraid you are in the toils. It is not necessary to resort to the methods you describe to make up the "deficiency" of $112,522 in the receipts of the Board of Foreign Missions of the (Northern) Presbyterian Church, as compared with the amount reported in the General Assembly's Minutes, when the Woman's Board acknowledges $224,025, leaving the "deficiency" the other way to about the same amount, and showing (what I have always observed in my own experience) that it was impossible to get *adequate* reports from the churches of what is actually done, as so much does not pass through the church treasurer's hands.

With regard to home missions, I have not the figures, but can readily account for the difference without reckoning $191 as sent to each man commissioned by the Board. In the Southern Presbyterian Church we are instructed to fill up the blanks with the amount sent to the Central Committees and *kindred objects*. A vast amount of home-mission work is done with which the Committee (or Board) has nothing to do. The church of which I am pastor, for instance, has this year built a mission school-house, and a thousand dollars will be reported as given to home missions that the general agency never saw. If we give several hundred dollars towards the endowment of a chair in a theological seminary, we report it as given to the cause of education, but it will not appear in the report of the Committee on Education. So a good deal of money goes direct to the foreign field for building churches and for other enterprises, where the Committee feels unable to undertake them. It is, of course, reported as given to foreign missions.

Then where is the objection to reporting money that is given to an undenominational object? A church of another denomination was destroyed by the great fire in this city last year. To my mind the money given by my church to rebuild it is a higher illustration of loving one's neighbor as one's self than if it had been given to a Presbyterian church.

With regard to statistics of membership, the case is different. As one who makes an effort to have the church rolls purged annually, I know it is a difficult matter. We have to carry every year a certain number that cannot be shelved, and yet that are practically not with us.—Very respectfully, PEYTON H. HOGE.

WILMINGTON, N. C., January 12, 1887.

[If Dr. Hoge will look again, he will see that he is completely in error in his reference to the Woman's Board. The $224,025 referred to was all turned over to the central treasury and acknowledged by it among "donations from the churches"; this being fully taken into the account in our reckoning. We do not see how Dr. Hoge, after his last two sentences, can escape being made a victim of the *Independent's* deadly argument (which it seems to regard as a complete *reductio ad absurdum*), "We never heard of this before."—ED. NATION.]

PROTECTION AGAINST WESTERN WHEAT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The following clipping from an Ohio newspaper may serve to illustrate the growth in logical consistency of some advocates of protection. The oft-repeated suggestion of the *Nation* that if protection is beneficial as applied to our foreign trade relations, it should be equally beneficial as a regulator of inter-State traffic, seems here to be adopted in good faith and seriousness. It should be stated that the clipping is not from an editorial, but from an interview with a man prominent in local railway matters; but the opinions expressed do not seem to the editor to call for reprehension or even comment:

"I think the Inter-State Commerce Bill will be a good thing. It will cause the railroads to pay more attention to the local traffic, and the people will get the benefit. By killing off some of the through shipments from the West, these Eastern farmers will get more protection. You see, there are large tracts of land out there in the West, and the men here with capital buy up a few thousand acres and send out a company of immigrants to till it. The grain that these people in the West raise comes here in competition with that of Eastern farmers, who have taxes to pay and large expenses for cultivation and labor. By shutting off these through shipments, the people here will be benefited. The local trade will be stimulated by lowering local rates, which the Inter-State Commerce Bill will do if passed."

The protection of the local grain producer is not ordinarily dwelt upon by the advocates of the claims of the American laborer to protection. C.

OHIO, January 16, 1887.

THE DERIVATION OF SAUNTER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I thank you for your very kindly notice of my 'Short Stories from the Dictionary' and for pointing out one of the "pitfalls" in the way of the student of the history of words, even though you indicate it by means of a slip in my little book. My pages show that I based my work on Webster's Dictionary, the accomplished editors of which have fallen more completely into this particular pitfall than I have in my incidental reference to the word "saunter" on page 46. The fact that *saunter* is also written "santer," seems to afford some support to the theory of its connection with *Sainte Terre*, which has been asserted from 1755 (when it was given in the revised edition of Bailey and by Dr. Johnson) to the days of Webster's latest revision, though it seems more probable that it bears some relation to the Italian *santa terra* or the French *sans terre* (homeless one). No one has yet remarked that the French expression is not *Sainte Terre*, but *Terre Sainte*, which would, of course, upset the theory of the

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derivation of *saunter* from it. In justice to myself perhaps I may be allowed to say that Skeat's Dictionary was published in parts, and that the portion treating saunter had not come into my hands at the time that 'Short Stories from the Dictionary' was written, though I was aware that the derivation was questioned, and I ought to have referred to the fact.—Yours truly,

ARTHUR GILMAN.

CAMBRIDGE, January 21, 1887.

Notes.

C. N. CASPAR, Milwaukee, sends us a Supplement to his 'Directory of Antiquarian and Second-hand Booksellers of the United States,' which will, he states, be shortly out of print. He now issues the prospectus of a more ambitious work, viz., a 'General Directory of the American Book, News, and Stationery Trade, and Kindred Branches, Wholesale and Retail, of the United States and Canada.' The second division of this directory will contain a digest of the lists of the American publishers—"a systematical and analytical key to the nature and kind of all books published" in the two countries. This, of course, will be based on the 'Trade-List Annual,' and its value is obvious. The third division will be a digest of price-lists. Subscriptions should be made through the *Publishers' Weekly*, 31 Park Row, New York.

J. B. Lippincott Co., Philadelphia, are about to publish, in connection with Adam and Charles Black, Edinburgh, a new library edition of the Waverley Novels in twenty-five volumes. The typography is very bold and distinct.

A new and thoroughly revised edition of 'Nuttall's Standard Dictionary,' edited by the Rev. James Wood of Edinburgh, in which etymologies as well as pronunciation will be given, and which will be freely illustrated, is in the press of F. Warne & Co.

Mr. Charles R. Hildeburn has just issued the second and last volume of his full and accurate work, 'A Century of Printing: The Issues of the Press in Pennsylvania, 1764-1784' (Philadelphia). The first volume, which was noticed in these columns in November, 1885, brought the list down to 1763, and contained 1,935 titles; the present records 2,707 titles for the years 1764 to 1785. An index of authors and titles, with a few subject entries, ends the volume. It is a question of conscience with an index-maker how far he shall permit himself the use of the block system, and annex to indexed words simple lists of all the pages on which they occur, thus ornamenting the page with symmetrical and economical blocks of figures, while effectually blocking the progress of the hunter after references. Mr. Hildeburn has restricted himself to names of individuals, and to the subjects "Proclamations" and "Votes." No advantage seems to be gained by printing the catchword in capitals.

We had intended to mention, in connection with the conclusion of Mr. Lodge's edition of Hamilton's Works, Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's 'Bibliotheca Hamiltoniana,' privately printed, in an edition of 500 copies, by the Knickerbocker Press, in typographical conformity to Mr. Lodge's volumes. It includes works written by or relating to Hamilton, and indicates the libraries in which they may be found. It is an excellent performance.

Apropos of this statesman, it is significant that he is not cited in the eulogistic compilation of 'Character Portraits of Washington,' selected and arranged by W. S. Baker (Philadelphia: Robert M. Lindsay). This was perhaps hardly ingenuous, since a quotation is made from Robert C. Winthrop in which the following passage occurs: "From his illustrious friend, Alexander Hamilton, I need not cite a word. His whole life bore testimony, more impressive than words, to an admiration and affection for his great chief which could not be exceeded, and which no momentary misunderstandings could shake." Twenty quarto volumes like this would fail to show the true character of the Father of his Country.

The 'Beecher Book of Days' (Cassell & Co.) has been edited by two ladies with unusual aptness, for often they place beneath the name of the eminent man born on the given date some remark of Mr. Beecher's about him, or some sentiment appropriate to his character.

In 1883 Carlton McCarthy, Richmond, Va., began publishing a series of pamphlet "Contributions to a History of the Richmond Howitzer Battalion." The fourth appeared before the close of last year, and the end is not yet. They well deserve to find a place in every public library and in any private collection on the war. To a large extent they consist of diaries; in the case of the battle of Big Bethel, both the Confederate and the Federal official reports are appended to the narrative. The value of these unpretentious reminiscences and records is very great, as assisting both to a knowledge of military events and to a conception of the soldier's life. Many shrewd observations find expression, as this: "It is my opinion that it takes a better, braver, and cooler man to stand by his 'piece' during an engagement than it does to charge any line of battle ever formed, and for this reason"—the artillerist's comparative freedom from excitement, and want of protection and of that moral support which animates a charge in line. One finds here, of course, the lost cause still judged the better one, but it is something to "come to the solemn, reverential conclusion that God fought that battle [of Gettysburg], and that neither party of the combatants was responsible for its issues."

The *Brooklyn Magazine* will, on April 15, change its name to that of the *American Magazine*, and provide illustrations of a high class.

The *Art Review* (New York) for December announces that Mr. Muybridge, the original photographer of the 'Horse in Motion,' has for three years, under the auspices of the University of Pennsylvania, been collecting material for a work on 'Animal Locomotion,' human beings included. The Photogravure Company of New York is now making the 781 plates, the letterpress to which is to be furnished by professors of the University. A hundred plates make a "volume," and the subscriber may select them from the total number, at the price of $100 or so. More than half the edition is said to be subscribed for.

L'Art (Macmillan), in the two numbers for December ending the past year, continues its articles on American art museums, coming to the Metropolitan Museum of this city, of whose director M. A. de Latour speaks in terms that would be libellous here. A series of papers on the collections at Chantilly is begun, and is illustrated by a portrait of the princely donor, and by many views of the Château and its art treasures. As attractive as any of the full-page illustrations is an etching of "Un Mousse" after Ulysse Butin. In the first January number, there is a superb etching by Daniel Mordant after Nicholas Maes, "The Dreamer."

French art is honored in the *Portfolio* for January (Macmillan) in the person of the sculptor Auguste Rodin, of whose works there are several spirited examples, including the admirable bust of Victor Hugo. In an article on Mr. G. F. Watt, apropos of his first gift to the National gallery, Mr. F. G. Stephens describes the works of this English master of the brush now deposited at South Kensington; but the sole illustration is of the hugest and the least inspired of the canvases which were exhibited in New York—the carter and his horses, or "Mid-day Rest." It gains by being etched. There is also an etching of Temple Bar. Mr. Reginald T. Blomfield, writing of the old half-timber houses in the Weald of Kent and its neighborhood, undertakes to fix the approximate date of the introduction of chimneys into this class of houses at 1591, or thereabouts. Collaterally he cites Shakspere in "King Henry IV., Part I, act 2, scene 1, where the carrier in the inn yard says: "Charles' wain is over the new chimney." The first edition of this play appeared in 1598.

The editor of the *Photographic Times* of this city has compiled from it an 'American Annual of Photography, and Photographic Times Almanac for 1887' (Scovill Manufacturing Co.), adding much besides of great interest and convenience to members of the craft, whether professional or amateur. Yet how greatly its practical value would have been enhanced by making the index analytical, bringing the articles on lenses, plates, films, toning, developing, washing, printing, etc., together in one view. Several silver and heliotype prints serve to adorn this volume. The advertisements should not be omitted in enumerating the useful matter it contains.

From John Heywood, Manchester, we have *Almonds and Raisins*, the Vegetarian Society's annual for 1887, in its fifth issue. For a frontispiece it has a steel engraving (from 'Lodge's Portraits') of Gen. Eliott, the heroic defender of Gibraltar, and a vegetarian and teetotaler. Shelley's vegetarianism is insisted on, in another article, as being "in keeping with his whole character, and essential to his imaginative style of writing." Mr. W. E. A. Axon sets forth the vegetarian aspect (among others) of Buddhism, and contributes several short poems. Recipes close the annual.

We have received the bulky 'Estadística Comercial de la República de Chile' for the year 1885, compiled by Señor Juan B. Torres, chief of the department of commercial statistics. It has to report a general falling off in the trade movement, in keeping with that which marked the principal nations of the civilized world during the same period. The imports from the United States to Chile fell away nearly 35 per cent., the most marked discrepancy being in machinery and tools. On the other hand, our imports from Chile increased nearly 22 per cent.

From Dietrich Reimer, Berlin, we have four more sheets of the great map of Attica prepared by officers of the Prussian General Staff. No. 13 shows Pentelicus; No. 14, Markópulo; Nos. 14, 15, Cape Sunium. The contour lines, the heights, the roads, the indications in red of ruins or of traces of former structures, characterize these plates as they did their predecessors; the scale being 1:25,000. The text to accompany this and the preceding set is reserved for the concluding issue, which is now not far off.

The publishers of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* have just issued their index number to the eighteen volumes which have appeared during the years 1875-1884. It has the same general character as the previous index, but is much larger. Instead of two there are now four sheets of index maps, which are so divided by various kinds of colored lines, accompanied by figures and in many cases by the names of travellers, that it is comparatively easy at a glance to see whether there is a map of any particular part of the world, the volume in which it is contained, its scale and character (as, for instance, whether it is simply geographical, or geological, or statistical). A study of these index maps is interesting as showing the directions which recent geographical investigation has taken. In Europe, Germany and the Balkan States; in Asia, the Afghan frontier, have been the greatest points of interest, while

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Equatorial Africa still surpasses all other parts of the world in the number of maps devoted to it.

We have before now remarked on the extreme frequency with which French writers for the young "annex" American books, arranging or adapting them very much as French plays are arranged and adapted for the American theatres. Among the announcements of the always admirable *Magasin illustré d'Éducation et de Récrétion*, founded by the late P. J. Stahl, is "Les Jeunes Filles de Quinebasset," by J. Lermont, "d'après S. May"—a wholly inadequate acknowledgment, it seems to us, yet beyond redress till we join the Copyright Union.

A year or so ago we noted the most amusing misprint of a French word in an English book, whereby Mme. de Maintenon was styled a "glorieuse *modiste*," and we have now to note a droll blunder in an English word in a French book. In M. Alfred Copin's 'Talma et la Révolution' (Paris: L. Frinzine & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern)—the first of three volumes on Talma's life, likely to be both interesting and useful—there is quoted a letter of Regnier's in which he adduces, as evidence of Talma's knowledge of English, the fact that he had in his library at his death a set of "Shakspere's *Aromatic* Works"—as strange a misprint for "Dramatic" as one could well imagine.

Frinzine & Cie., by the way, are now issuing a handsome octavo edition of M. Jules Barbey d'Aurevilly's "Les Œuvres et les Hommes," of which the third volume, 'Sensations d'Histoire,' has just appeared. The preceding volumes were 'Sensations d'Art' and 'Les Critiques, ou les Juges jugés.' The papers of which these volumes are composed have appeared during the last thirty years in various Parisian newspapers, especially the *Constitutionnel*, *Pays*, and *Nain jaune*. Many years ago the first five volumes of the series appeared in a much less luxurious form than the present one, but this original edition has long been out of print, and now the publishers announce a new and enlarged edition of these also, uniform with the three volumes that have recently been issued. The first of these, 'Les Philosophes,' is announced as in preparation. The other volumes to be republished are 'Les Historiens,' 'Les Poètes,' 'Les Romanciers,' 'Les Bas-Bleus.' M. Barbey d'Aurevilly is himself a novelist and a poet as well as a critic. To which of the various categories the new work upon the Middle Ages that he is now preparing belongs, it would be difficult to decide.

A second, "revised and enlarged" edition of Dr. Georg Brandes's 'Moderne Geister: Literarische Bildnisse aus dem Neunzehnten Jahrhundert,' has just been published in Frankfort-on-the-Main. This issue, in addition to the articles upon Paul Heyse, Renan, Flaubert, John Stuart Mill, Hans Christian Andersen, Tegnér, and Björnson, reprinted from the edition of 1882, contains four additional "literary portraits." The essay on the Danish poet Frederik Paludan-Müller has been omitted, for the reason, as stated in the preface, that it can be found by German readers elsewhere, namely, as the introduction to Emma Klingenfeld's translation of the poet's best known work, 'Adam Homo.' Of the chapters added to this edition, the one upon Henrik Ibsen was included in Prof. Anderson's translation, entitled 'Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century,' so that to American readers but three chapters, some sixty-eight pages in all, are new. These treat of Max Klinger, Edmond and Jules de Goncourt, and Turgeneff, and, with the article on Ibsen, constitute the latest work of Brandes included in the book, being dated (the first two) 1882 and (the last two) 1883. Readers familiar with Brandes's productiveness need hardly be told that he has since written enough to make several volumes of the size of 'Moderne Geister.'

No. 2, vol. i, of the *Revue Générale du Droit et des Sciences Politiques* (Bucharest), contains an article by Prof. Gneist on the administrative reforms accomplished in Prussia by the legislation of 1872-1876. This series of laws is concerned with local self-government in the Circle and Amtsbezirk (administrative subdivision of the circle). It also treats of the bureaucratic officials in province, district, and circle, in so far as they entertain appeals from, and preside over, the local self-governing organs. This great system originated in the brain of Baron vom Stein, and has been elaborated and carried out by Bismarck—not the least among the many debts that Germany and humanity generally owe him.

—Mr. Henry J. Morgan's 'Annual Register' (Toronto: Hunter, Rose & Co.) for 1885 is not so unpunctual as our notice of it, which, after all, must needs be somewhat perfunctory. To this excellent work every one must turn who wishes a summary review of what is going on across the Canadian border. The great events of 1885 in the Dominion were the Riel rebellion and the completion of the Canadian Pacific Railway; and among the minor happenings are to be noted the smallpox outbreak and fanaticism in Montreal, and the return of the Canadian voyageurs from Wolseley's expedition up the Nile. The chief deaths of the year were those of Riel and of Sir Francis Hincks. Our neighbors were, like ourselves, occupied with the liquor question, with civil-service reform, with restriction of Chinese immigration. In regard to the last, the expedient was adopted of taxing every incoming Chinaman (with certain exceptions) fifty dollars, as recommended recently for all immigrants to this country by a correspondent in these columns. In dread of evils not yet experienced, Parliament assumed its constitutional right to fix the qualifications of Dominion voters, the rule heretofore having been that the voter qualified for State suffrage was thereby entitled to vote for representatives in the Dominion House of Commons. To pass this bill without complications, Sir John Macdonald allowed the provision for female suffrage to be slaughtered, though professing sympathy with it. An *écho de France* is the fate of a bill to punish seduction, which did not get beyond a second reading. It had thrice in former years passed the House, but had been killed in the Senate, where we may suspect the French Canadian influence to predominate. Mr. Morgan's review of literature is this year confined to a bare list of 122 copyrighted works. The Library of Parliament, having grown national in its proportions, was provided by law with two librarians, one general and one especially Parliamentary—a luxury at which we have not yet arrived. The National (alias Protective) Policy may be studied in the debates here reported; the Government eulogizing its workings, and the Opposition lamenting them.

—After nearly two years' delay, the Dunlap Society is at last ready to begin. Its first two publications will be sent to the members in a few days, and the third will follow shortly. It is simply a publication society, all its receipts being spent in books and pamphlets for its subscribers, and these relating to the stage in America. Its first publication will be the comedy of the "Contrast," written by Royall Tyler, afterwards Chief Justice of Vermont, and acted at the John Street Theatre in 1787, just a century ago. It was the first play by a native author which was acted by a professional company, and it contained the first "Yankee part." In his interesting introduction to the present reprint, Mr. McKee shows that the success of a purely American play with American characters was largely instrumental in the change of public opinion about the drama, and in relaxing the laws against the theatre. The second publication of the Society will be "The Father, or American Shandyism," the first comedy of William Dunlap, who was the historian of the American Theatre and namesake of the Society. "The Father" was the second play by a native author acted by a professional company. The introduction to this is also the work of Mr. McKee, who supplies an outline sketch of Dunlap's career, and an elaborate and much-needed list of Dunlap's plays, with the dates of their writing, performance, and publication. Both of these books have been beautifully printed at the De Vinne Press. They can be had only by members. The annual subscription is five dollars, which may be sent to Mr. Thomas J. McKee, Treasurer, No. 338 Broome Street. As the third publication of the Society, Mr. Laurence Hutton is preparing a collection of the poetic addresses written for the opening of various American theatres during the past century and a quarter. Among the later issues will be Dunlap's "André," edited by Mr. Brander Matthews, with an introduction considering the many other plays on the subject of Arnold's treason. It is in contemplation to issue during the year a volume of 'Transactions,' containing a theatrical bibliography, Mr. Lawrence Barrett's recollections of Charlotte Cushman, etc.

—"The passage in Pliny," writes a correspondent, "to which Mr. Windsor, in No. 1123, was unable to refer for proof that the effect of oil on stormy waters is not a modern discovery, is in 'Historia Naturalis,' book ii, ss. 106. It consists, however, only in four words, namely, 'Omne [mare] oleo tranquillari.' He might have found a better proof-text for his purpose in the 'Natural Questions' of Plutarch. No. 12 in this series is headed, 'When the sea is sprinkled over with oil, why does it become calm?' He asks further, 'Is it, as Aristotle [died 323 B. C] says, because the winds, slipping on the smooth oil, have no force, nor cause any waves?' He adds, among other things, 'It is to be considered whether the sea which is uneven is compacted and made smooth by the dense oil,' etc., etc. No student of Plutarch will hearken to doubts about the storm-stilling power of oil, based on that opinion's being a novelty. The venerable Bede tells a story in his 'Ecclesiastical History' which may be the earliest historical ground of our phrase concerning storm-soothing oil. His words, in the quaint old version, are these, *verbatim et literatim*: 'A certain priest, when he was sent into Kent, A. D. 651, to fetche Kinge Edwine's daughter to be married to King Oswin, went to Bishop Aida beseeching his prayers, etc. The Bishop blessing them, and committing them to the goodness of God, gave them also hallowed oil, saying, "I know that when you shall have shipping, a tempe-t shall rise upon you sodirnly [*sic*]. But remember that you cast into the sea this oyle that I geue you," etc. All these things were fulfilled. Truly at the beginning of the tempest, when the waues and surges did chiefly rage, the shipmen essayed to cast ancar, but all in vaine. For the whaues multiphied so faste that nothing but present death was looked for In this distress, the priest at the length remembering the bishop's words, took the oyle-pot and did cast of the oyle into the sea; which being done, the sea calmed—and the ship passed on with a most prosperous voyage. No common reporter of uncertain rumors,' Bede adds, 'but a priest of our church, Cynimund by name, shewed me the process of this miracle.' The potencies of oil are traced far back of Bede or Plutarch by Menzel in 'Christian Symbolism.' According to his legendaries, the 'leaf plucked off' which the dove brought in her mouth to Noah was taken from the olive tree, the mother of oil, in pre-established harmony with the magical might of

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oil on water. He also intimates that children about one's table are called 'olive plants,' as being peacemakers in conjugal storms, or at least adapted to be."

—Mr. Thomas Sinclair, whose numerous contributions to imaginative literature have been for the most part either ignored or damned without even faint praise by English critics, has found for his last work a German translator who likes him. Toward the close of 1885, Mr. Sinclair published a collection of miscellanies under the name of 'Humanities,' and a part of this book now lies before us in a German version bearing the title 'Humanitätsstudien.' The original was published by Trübner & Co. of London, and the translation bears the imprint of Karl J. Trübner of Strassburg. The translator, Hans Schiffert Müller by name, explains that he was drawn to his author by the "worth of the man, by his [Sinclair's] pure love of beauty, and by the hope of regenerating the nations through the agency of a *neu sich bildende Kunst*," that is, we suppose, through a new Renaissance. This may be a pretty enough programme, but we greatly fear that Mr. Sinclair and his translator combined have accomplished but little toward carrying it out. The former gentleman has as a writer two unfortunate characteristics which will interfere with the success of his doctrine. The first is a lack of lucidity—a literary virtue which may not be absolutely necessary to a crier in the wilderness as such, but is quite indispensable to an evangelist who expects to move the world by an appeal to the æsthetic instinct. The other is a radicalism of view, or at least a violence of statement, which will repel the very people who need to be persuaded. The essay on Humanism, the only really readable portion of the volume before us, has as its burden the now familiar idea that Christianity destroyed a better civilization than it has yet given birth to. Nerva, Trajan, Antoninus, represent higher types of character than the world since their time has produced. "Judaizing Christianity," with its hostility to the beautiful, has been a long calamity to mankind. One of the saddest sights in modern Rome is to see old classical temples, in all their wholesomeness and purity, employed for the barbarous cult of Christianity, and so forth. We have heard all this before, from Heine, from Mlle. de Maupin, from Mr. Swinburne, and others. It is a gospel which offends not only the religious mind (its promulgators of course glory in that), but the scientific mind also. It proceeds upon a one-sided and false view of antiquity, a view very different from that reached by sober and careful scholarship. But how in these days is a great reform to make its way with both religion and science against it?

— A very exciting debate took place at an extra session of the Municipal Council of Milan, on the 29th of December last, upon a proposal to erect a statue to Louis Napoleon in the new square to be opened in the old parade-ground surrounding the arch of triumph built by Napoleon I. In the end the resolution was passed by the large majority of sixty-eight votes to six of the assembled councilmen. The history of this statue is very curious. One of the most memorable events in the progress of the Italian regeneration was when Victor Emanuel and Napoleon III., after having defeated the Austrians in Lombardy, entered, as liberators, the city of Milan, at the head of the allied armies of France and Italy. The enthusiasm of the Milanese for the patriot King and the French Emperor was unbounded. There was nothing they would not have done to testify their joy and gratitude. Almost, had anybody proposed to erect altars and worship the King and the Emperor as divinities, they would have voted it unanimously, as their ancestors the Romans had done to their Emperors. But with regard to Napoleon III. this enthusiasm soon waned away, for, after the victory of Solferino, on his own authority, and without consulting his ally, he signed a treaty of peace at Villafranca, in which, though liberating Lombardy from Austria, he allowed this Power to retain Venice and the fortresses of the quadrilateral. Moreover, he inserted in the treaty a provision that the Grand Duke of Tuscany and the Duke of Modena, who had been expelled from their States, should be restored, and that Bologna, which had rebelled against the power of the Pope, should return to its allegiance; and, further, that a confederacy of all the Italian States should be formed under the "honorary" presidency of the Pope. The news of this treaty caused a painful dismay throughout Italy; Victor Emanuel signed it reluctantly, and Cavour was so indignant that he immediately resigned his premiership, and the King had some difficulty in calming his anger against what he considered the Emperor's duplicity. Louis Napoleon skulked back into France, passing hastily through Milan and Turin under very different auspices from those of his arrival.

— It is no wonder that even the Milanese cooled down considerably in their enthusiasm for Louis Napoleon. Their revulsion of feeling was intensified by his continued occupation of the Roman State to uphold the Pope, and by the defeat of the Garibaldians at Mentana, brought about by his French troops. But when his misfortunes came, with his terrible defeat at Sedan in 1870, a feeling of pity arose in many hearts in Italy, especially in Milan, where the people who had been oppressed by a foreign tyranny for nearly half a century could not forget the debt which they owed to the Emperor and the French army; and when, three years after, came the news of his death, the Milanese felt the old enthusiasm and sense of gratitude revive. A committee of citizens was formed for a public subscription to raise a statue to him, as to one who had contributed to liberate Lombardy from the Austrians. It was soon collected, and many eminent names appeared in the list of contributors, even among those whom one would have supposed hostile to it—for example, Gen. Sirtori, who had been Garibaldi's chief of staff in most of his campaigns. In a letter in which he defended his action against the attacks of some Radicals who accused him of inconsistency in his political principles, he stated that his act had no political meaning whatever; that it was merely one of gratitude—gratitude towards a man who might be reproached with many grave errors and wrongdoings, but to whom gratitude was certainly due for the part he took on that special occasion. The statue was ordered and finished, and is said to be a superb work of art; but when the question arose as to its being accepted by the city and erected in some public square, such strong opposition was manifested by the Radicals and *irredenti* that the Committee decided to let it remain where it had been exhibited, and where it still is. In this last session, however, most of the city Councilmen were known to be in favor of its acceptance and erection in a public place. The Mayor, who was a strong partisan of the project, brought the matter up, taking advantage of the improvements about to be made in the old parade-ground, and the proposition was voted by the large majority stated above.

—The new volume of 'Ersch and Gruber's Encyklopädie' is the thirty-ninth of the second section, and extends from Koeppen to Kriegk, being the eighth devoted to the letter K. Like its predecessors, it contains many titles which will be looked for in vain in any other encyclopædia, with the possible exception of Larousse's "Grand Dictionnaire." Among these may be mentioned the following, which do not appear at all in the 'Britannica': Peter von Köppen, Russian archæologist, and ethnographer, 1793–1864, occupying five pages—(this title occurs in 'Appleton's American Cyclopædia'); Korah (two pages, by Kautsch); Kordax, a dance of the older Greek comedy; Korórofa, a kingdom of Central Africa, mentioned in the second volume of Barth's travels, and visited by Robert Flegel in 1879 and 1882; and several others, some of which, however, are the names of German savants whom one would hardly expect to find in any but a German book. The article on the Copts occupies a page and a half in the 'Britannica' and five pages in 'Appleton's'; in 'Ersch and Gruber' there are twenty-four pages, of which ten are devoted to history, etc., twelve to language and literature—these two articles being by Ludwig Stern—and a third article of two pages, by another writer, on the Coptic Church. The article on the Koran covers nine pages, about the same space devoted to it by Nöldeke in the 'Britannica,' but does not treat of the position of the Koran in the dogma of Islam, or of its influence on the development of Mohammedan literature and science, referring for these topics to the article Mohammedanism, not yet published. It produces an almost odd effect to find in so learned a dissertation the following passage: "In Mecca Mohammed was a plebeian whose persistence occasionally became burdensome to the public, as does the shouting of the Salvation Army to the citizens of London, and whose personal history and activity among his adherents produced no deeper impression on the masses than the doings of 'General' Booth in the bosom of his 'Army.'" Other long articles are Cossacks, eleven pages; Kosegarten, ten pages; Kotzebue, nine pages, while Koerner has only four and a half; Corinthians (Epistles to the), eight pages; Crusades, fourteen pages. As indicating versatility may be mentioned articles on the Crossing of Breeds in Animals and Plants, on Cranes (derricks), three pages, and particularly one on Cosmetics, which would not be looked for in a work of erudition. It extends to three pages, and gives practical instructions for preventing baldness, removing dandruff, caring for the teeth, etc. An article of six pages is assigned to Humboldt's 'Kosmos,' and one of eight pages to War, the latter enumerating six causes of war, much as *Touchstone* mentions the seven degrees of the lie, to wit, "the Retort courteous, the Quip modest, the Reply churlish, the Reproof valiant, the Countercheck quarrelsome, the Lie with circumstance, the Lie direct."

McCLELLAN'S OWN STORY.—II.

McClellan's Own Story. The War for the Union, the Soldiers who fought it, the Civilians who directed it, and his relations to it and to them. By George B. McClellan, late Major-General commanding the armies. 8vo, pp. 678. New York: Charles L. Webster & Co. 1887.

In regard to his relations to Secretary Stanton, who is the *bête noire* of the story, the new matter of the volume has value—both that written by McClellan for publication and the correspondence added by his editor. In substance it is, that soon after reaching Washington he was introduced to Stanton, who was then a private citizen, as "a safe adviser on legal points," though what need he had of such advice, unless from the Attorney-General of the United States, is not clear. Stanton "did his best to ingratiate himself with me, and professed the warmest friendship and devotion. . . . The most disagreeable thing about him was the extreme virulence with which he abused the President, the Administration, and

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the Republican party. . . . He never spoke of the President in any other way than as the 'original gorilla.' . . . At some time during the autumn of 1861, Secretary Cameron made quite an abolition speech to some newly arrived regiments. Next day Stanton urged me to arrest him for inciting to insubordination. He often advocated the propriety of my seizing the Government and taking affairs into my own hands" (p. 152). Under date of November 17, his private correspondence shows that he goes "to Stanton's to ascertain what the law of nations is on this Slidell and Mason seizure" (p. 175). In the same letter he says he must "devote the day to getting our Government to take the only prompt and honorable course of avoiding a war with England and France," and declares himself "heavy at heart when I see the weakness and unfitness of the poor beings who control the destinies of this great country." It was a few days later that he was "concealed at Stanton's" to escape "'browsing Presidents,' etc.," noticed above. During McClellan's illness in December he learned from Stanton that the President, who had been denied access to the General, had committed to McDowell, Franklin, and Meigs the duty of inquiring into the state of the army, and what should be done if McClellan were to die. He says that Stanton put it, "They are counting on your death, and are already dividing among themselves your military goods and chattels" (p. 155). It was from Stanton that he got the information that the President and Cabinet were to hear the report of the three generals on January 12, and he "mustered strength enough to be driven to the White House, where my unexpected appearance caused very much the effect of a shell in a powder magazine. It was very clear, from the manner of those I met there, that there was something of which they were ashamed" (p. 156).

Diverging for a moment from the thread of the relations between Stanton and McClellan, it is necessary to note the extraordinary frame of mind which the last statement indicates. He had been ill for some three weeks—so ill that, although he professes to have directed business from his sick-bed, "it more than once happened" (as he himself says) that the President called and was "denied admittance" (p. 155). He also does not deny that his leading generals were ignorant of his plans, if he had any. When an officer is so ill, in time of war, that the Commander-in-Chief is denied admittance to him, it would require no apology and give no cause for being "ashamed," but, on the other hand, would have been the most ordinary and simple exercise of right, to have turned over the command to the next in seniority. It was widely believed at the time that the illness was exaggerated, and that the denying admittance to the President was an affront for which the sickness was a pretext rather than a reason. If, though it happened "more than once," it had been really due to the accident that the General was asleep after "intervals of wakefulness" when the President called in person at his house, it can hardly need to be said that the imperative duty of the General was to see that a very prompt opportunity was offered for an interview at the earliest moment at which he was fit for any business whatever. There is no pretence that this was done, and the revelation that Mr. Stanton found no such difficulty in reaching him does not help to clear up this period of McClellan's personal history. So far as it goes, it supports the old accusation that he took refuge in seclusion to escape pressure to act.

But to return: Stanton was nominated Secretary of War the day after the events last spoken of. McClellan says that Stanton immediately called upon him to confer with him as to its acceptance. He (Stanton) said "that the only possible inducement would be that he might have it in his power to aid me in the work of putting down the rebellion; that he was willing to devote all his time, intellect, and energy to my assistance, and that together we could soon bring the war to an end. If I wished him to accept he would do so, but only on my account; that he had come to know my wishes and to determine accordingly. I told him that I hoped he would accept the position" (p. 153). In his letter to Stanton himself, under date of July 8, 1862, McClellan uses stronger language, and says: "When you were appointed Secretary of War I considered you my intimate friend and confidential adviser. Of all men in the nation, you were my choice for that position" (p. 477). The disclosure of Stanton's previous attitude to the Administration and to Mr. Lincoln personally, if correct, raises the troublesome question how McClellan could, consistently with his loyalty to the President, either have made Stanton his confidential adviser previously, or favored his assuming the confidential relation of Cabinet officer to Mr. Lincoln. If he had really advised McClellan to make a *coup d'état* and seize the Government, as the General says he had "often" done, to make him Secretary of War when renewing assurances of personal devotion has too ugly a suggestion of willingness to coöperate illegally, and McClellan, in making such a statement, starts more perilous problems than he solves. Assuming that it was only wild talk (McClellan calls them "ebullitions of an intense and patriotic nature"), we cannot help asking if this was fair dealing with Lincoln? We have not the space, nor are we now concerned, to examine Mr. Stanton's side of the controversy. McClellan credits him with being consistent in declaring his wish to put down the rebellion at any cost, and implies that the "patriotic" idea of a *coup d'état* was thought of as tending to that end. The idea was not unfamiliar to him. As early as August 9, the time of his first "row" with Scott, he writes that he "receives letter after letter, has conversation after conversation, calling on me to save the nation, alluding to the Presidency, dictatorship, etc." Although he earnestly disclaims such an aspiration, he adds: "I would cheerfully take the dictatorship and agree to lay down my life when the country is saved" (p. 85). If Mr. Lincoln had known of this, no doubt he would have said to McClellan, as he did afterwards to Hooker, that if he would crush the rebellion he would take the risk of the dictatorship. Perhaps Lincoln knew more than the General thought, and it is barely possible that a painful interview between them, narrated on page 196, concerning "a very ugly matter," may have been connected with such knowledge; and he who listened to "conversation after conversation" suggesting treason could hardly be surprised when Mr. Lincoln used the word in connection with things attributed to him.

We are told that Stanton's manner changed immediately after he became Secretary of War, and McClellan concludes that it was because he had all along been in secret alliance with "the radicals," who "were unwilling that I should be successful." It is possible for those less prejudiced to think that when Mr. Stanton officially learned the extent to which the resources of the country had been put at McClellan's disposal, he, too, went through the process of disillusion which so many have undergone before and since. McClellan's editor supplements the charge of duplicity against Stanton by contrasting the Secretary's letter of July 5, 1862, at the close of the "seven days' battles," assuring the General of his real friendship and of his ardent desire that he may be victorious, with the statements of Secretaries Welles and Chase as to his hostility. Unfortunately, such contrasts were not confined to Stanton's side of the matter. In reply to the letter mentioned above, McClellan wrote to Stanton on July 8, saying, among other things: "It is with a feeling of great relief that I now say to you that I shall at once resume, on my part, the same cordial confidence which once characterized our intercourse" (p. 478); yet only five days thereafter he writes to his wife: "So you want to know how I feel about Stanton, and what I think of him now? I think . . . [asterisks in the text]. I may do the man injustice. God grant that I may be wrong! For I hate to think that humanity can sink so low. But my opinion is just as I have told you. He deceived me once; he never will again. . . . I now know you were right. Enough of the creature" (p. 447). As the editor selected and printed the above, and also wrote the note accusing Stanton of "private treason to a general in the field," is it not possible that the same leniency which does not find duplicity in the letters of July 8 and 13 might cover the Secretary with the same mantle of charity? And will not one who thoughtfully reads the whole story of McClellan's relations to both Lincoln and Stanton in his own narrative, as well as in the private correspondence which the editor has, discreetly or indiscreetly, added, find that he, at least, was living in a "glass house"?

There is abundant proof that Mr. Lincoln did his own thinking, and that, in this matter of the policy of the war, McClellan was dealing with him personally. It was he who criticised the General's plan of sailing, to the peninsula, and pointed out the fact "that going down the bay in search of a field, instead of fighting at or near Manassas, was only shifting and not surmounting a difficulty; that we should find the same enemy and the same or equal entrenchments at either place" (p. 277). The letters of Lincoln show a clear and sound judgment on military matters in nearly every particular, and he made no error at all comparable with the fatal one by which the professional General multiplied his enemy at every juncture. It was McClellan who failed to take account of the fact that, even by the much-abused "Cram map," a line of four miles would connect Yorktown with the affluents of the James. It was he who failed to reckon upon the probability that the Confederates would entrench such a line in advance, when in fact they made three such lines, by either of which McClellan was as completely "bottled" as Butler at Bermuda Hundreds. It was he who declared the roads on the peninsula were passable at all seasons, when he found them impassable as soon as he arrived there. It was he who argued that on that line his right would be secure, when his communications were forcibly cut on that flank and the terrible "seven days" began in that way.

The criticism of Mr. Lincoln for recalling McDowell when Jackson appeared in the Shenandoah would have been just if he could have relied upon McClellan's activity and "push." But he could not do this in the face of his experience of the previous year, and the event showed that Lee could occupy McClellan with a much inferior force, while a detachment under Jackson was striking telling and distant blows. But besides all this, there remains the stubborn fact, which his 'Own Story' does not attempt to meet, that his army and his resources were still superior to his enemy, and that he was baffled by his own imagination, which continued to magnify his opponents.

Perhaps the most painful thing in this volume to those who once made Gen. McClellan their idol, is to see the revelation of blinding self-esteem which it exhibits. Neither in the state nor in the army does he find one man capable of guiding affairs. The country is ruled by rogues and incapables, and at the Chickahominy he de-

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clares that "it would be utter destruction to this army were I to be disabled so as not to be able to take command." McDowell. Halleck, Burnside, and Pope, as they by force of circumstances became his rivals, are stupid, dishonest, incompetent. He has some praise for a few of the regular officers who had been devoted followers of himself, or had been far removed from his sphere, but this is all. He has no word of recognition for the military achievements of Grant or Sherman or Sheridan.

Yet the army was devoted to him—so devoted that it was unjustly thought they would tolerate no other commander, and might mutiny if he were supplanted. Their enthusiasm for him was an advantage which determined his last appointment to command. There were several reasons for this—some of them good, some of them not so good. From headquarters the belief pervaded that great army that the skill of their commander saved them in conflicts against overwhelming odds, and had preserved them from being precipitated against a hundred and fifty thousand foes entrenched at Manassas. If they had known the truth as the pitiless pen of history is now picturing it, would they have been so enthusiastic? Would they have thought it a glory to have made good their retreat from the Chickahominy to the James, if they had known that by far the greater part of the enemy was engaged with Porter's single corps at Gaines's Mill? They took their commander at his word, and honestly believed that his genius had made them at least partly successful in a struggle of one against three or four, and that hardly "Father Abraham" had been just in estimating the odds opposed to them. A philosopher has said that "the sense of impossibility quenches all will," and the army was persistently and scientifically indoctrinated with the conviction that they were assigned to a task nearly if not quite beyond their physical powers. Braver men, better soldiers were never seen, and if there is any lack of the full accomplishment they were capable of, their commanders must bear the blame, and each of these in turn received the fatal legacy of a weak *morale* growing out of a false theory of the facts. For twenty years friend and foe have alike challenged the first commander of that army to justify his assertion that his enemy was multifold his superior in force. He has answered, and his answer is the silence on this point which is confession. To the soldiers who followed him is bequeathed the sad duty of doing justice to the Administration of Lincoln, and of readjusting the account of praise and blame, of glory and of humiliation.

GHIBERTI.

Ghiberti et son école. Par Charles C. Perkins. Paris: Jules Rouam. 1886.

LIKE previous works of the late lamented historian of the arts of Tuscany, this exhaustive monograph, on one of the most original of the Renaissance artists, is rather to be noted for its patient and thorough research, its compendious assimilation of the art studies of other authorities and its catholic appreciation, than for critical acumen or originality. It gives us all the material which exists for completing our idea of Ghiberti as a figure of his epoch and in his relations with his fellow-artists, but we shall look in it in vain for any luminous or original expression of the character of his art, or for subtle distinctions of artistic qualities in that of his epoch. Generous and comprehensive, even enthusiastic, as an amateur of the arts, Mr. Perkins somehow misses in his commentary the fundamental divisions which separate the vital and immortal manifestations of art from the emulations and semblances which the former always develop. His judgments never failed from want of research, but rather from want of fine discrimination between the considerations presented to him.

That with regard to Ghiberti Mr. Perkins was at a loss to form a definite and satisfactory estimate, is shown by his perplexity as to the artist's relation to the antique. It appears clearly enough, from the ensemble of the documents presented, that Ghiberti was sufficiently acquainted with antique sculpture to have undergone its influence as completely as any of his contemporaries; and his having been so slightly influenced as he was, according to Mr. Perkins, should have pointed directly to the cause in the limitations of his artistic faculties. Says the author:

"The field of observation being so restrained for Ghiberti, the influence of the antique, which shows itself in his 'Isaac,' is so much the more remarkable that this influence, which began to show itself so early, and which made him later one of the best connoisseurs and most famous collectors of his epoch, never incited him to treat classical subjects, nor to work in the Greco-Roman style. There is in this an enigma which is not easy to solve; and what surprises us still more is, that the antique had not sufficient influence on him to prevent the kind of picturesque debauch (*débauche pittoresque*) which characterizes his second manner. In fact, he seems there to ignore completely the natural limitations of sculpture which the ancients have always respected with such scrupulous care."

Now, nothing is clearer, among the comparisons which a wide study of art develops, than that which is here so nearly touched and yet missed. Ghiberti was not influenced more by Greek art for the simple reason that that art is one of ideals, of types, and Ghiberti had no sympathy with types. If we take the best Greek work in which there is any departure from the typical tendency and an attempt to tell a story, we must confess that the attempt is very lame—the pediments of the Parthenon not excepted, which, magnificent as are their broken fragments even, can have only been, in their most perfect state, a collection of types, very unsatisfactorily expressing the event they commemorated. Now, in none of Ghiberti's single statues is this study of type noticeable, but, on the contrary, the effort to develop the story-telling side of art. He had far more sympathy with Gothic art, which is primarily decorative (and by this alone kept within the limits of true art), and thus with the narrative-literary, as we might now call it. Naturally, as artist, he must have felt the supreme qualities of Greek sculpture, so far as its technique went; but there is nothing in his own art to show that he had any appreciation of what is the vital quality of the pure Greek art, the subjective development of types of beauty. Ghiberti was essentially modern in all his tendencies and achievements, and consequently without any root of sympathy with the motives of Greek art, however much he may have admired its technical triumphs.

The enigma which our author finds so difficult to solve ought to be no enigma at all—we see it repeated again and again in Veronese, in Rembrandt, wherever in art the decorative element dominated the ideal. We are disposed, besides, to differ with the author, though with less positiveness, in what he says of Ghiberti's work as that of a painter-sculptor—an idea which, however, he shows (p. 57) was not original with him, but due to Rumohr:

"In his first manner, such as it appears in his 'Sacrifice of Abraham' and in the bas-reliefs of the first door of the Baptistery, Ghiberti is much less painter-sculptor than in the second door, made after linear perspective, codified for the use of artists by Brunelleschi, had placed at his disposal resources until then unknown. Let us say, however, that the author of the doors worked as a painter from the beginning as much as was possible without the aid of perspective. In his bas-reliefs, in fact, he used landscape as background for his figures, and gave to these a peculiar lightness and flexibility (*plasticité*), calculating his shadows as an essential element of the effect sought for."

This is, while cognizant of certain distinctive qualities of the artist's work, and suggestive of their significance, not so close to the truth as not to be misleading. Ghiberti was not so much a painter-sculptor as a decorative sculptor. The general effect of his work as decoration was of vital importance; the particular value or perfection of parts, of very little. And with all due deference to any judgment differing from ours, we always have felt in presence of the gates of the Baptistery that the ornamental work *par excellence*, the borders and medallions of the first door, show a happier feeling and a more complete art than the more ambitious and intellectual subject bas-reliefs. But it is not the feeling of the painter, and perhaps if Mr. Perkins had been asked to define more clearly what he meant by painter-sculptor, and had not been misled by Rumohr, he would have said "designer in relief," for it is this character of designer in the more modern sense of the word—the decorative designer more distinctly—which distinguishes Ghiberti among his contemporaries. But so far from admitting that the term painter-sculptor was one which defined the quality of the artist, we should be disposed to say that it was owing to a deficiency of feeling for the aims of the painter and the charms of color, that his powers over relief were so subtle and remarkable. No just nomenclature of art will admit the use of the word "painter" where it is clear that the palette has no place and the resources of the artist are precisely those which dispense with color, as is the case in the work of Ghiberti.

Mr. Perkins traces the influences of prior art which had fallen on Ghiberti, but we apprehend that he carries too far complaisance to a certain worship of Dante which is much in vogue with the admirers of the art and thought of the Middle Ages, when he reckons him as the inspirer of Ghiberti.

"After having spoken of technique, let us consider the style of Ghiberti, which is that of an epoch already in part freed from the control of theology. Symbolism, allegory, convention, tradition, formulas, in fact, are no longer required; the artist enters into more direct relations with his epoch, he works under the double inspiration of nature and the antique. He owes his emancipation especially to the great poet of the 'Divine Comedy,' who, while solving in terms of the Middle Ages the problems which preoccupy him, does not lose sight for an instant of humanity and the real world."

This seems to us strained and inconsequent. That a culture which has vital causes in the spirit of its epoch should awaken the artist to efforts analogous to those of the writer, is most natural and probably of continual occurrence; but that there is any distinct relation between any form of literary work and the style or purely artistic side of the artist's work, we are disposed to deny entirely. The literary causes which enter into the character of a work of art, as distinguished from the purely pictorial, are always of inferior vitality; and, *where they dominate*, the art is always an inferior art. Not only is the picture which owes its effect to the story which it illustrates of a lower art, but the style which imitates or emulates literary qualities is invariably an artificial one, and, when its fashion is past, is sure to be consigned to the limbo of abortions. Dante might furnish subjects to Giotto or to Michael Angelo or Doré, but to suppose that he had any influence on the style of his illustrator is to go outside the capabilities of true art. Nor is it clear how the poet can affect the style of the artist, since they deal with elements the analogies between which are so remote that the translation is almost inconceivable. No more do the themes of Ghiberti or his contemporaries borrow their

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vitality from the 'Commedia.' The mediæval hell was not invented by Dante, but was accepted by him as it was, and, as was the religion of his time, as a mélange of paganism and a doctrine of a hopeful and progressive immortality. If Dante had invented his Inferno, no one in his time would have believed in him or it. To say, therefore, that painters were influenced by Dante because they painted the Inferno, is a most insufficient reasoning; and our author's dictum is one which could not occur to an art critic pure and simple—it borrows reasons from literature, which are always fallacious.

It is a refinement of critical acumen which makes Ghiberti's work so superior to that of other sculptors in his vein. As decorative ensemble, no doubt they are the most remarkable of their kind in existence, and Michael Angelo's hyperbolical commendation has done as much for them as their real merits; but as sculptor and in statuary he may easily be overrated, and, in fact, it seems to us that the very limitations of his genius were the cause of his remarkable success in what must, after all, be accepted as a secondary work of sculpture.

It seems to us unfortunate that Mr. Perkins had not (if he has not) written his work in English, because his French does not compensate for his native language: it reads heavily. But, to cease fault-finding, which is the reviewer's chief business, we must render complete homage to the thoroughness of the work done by Mr. Perkins in the collation and weaving into one of the most interesting of art biographies the materials for Ghiberti's life. The publisher's part is ill done—the illustrations are in the worst vein of process work, and most unworthy the book or any illustrated book in this day of perfected processes. An American publisher of good standing would be ashamed to furnish so important a book with a so poor artistic outfit.

SOME RECENT WORKS ON ETYMOLOGY.

Précis de Grammaire historique de la langue française. Par Ferdinand Brunot. Paris: G. Masson; New York: F. W. Christern. 1887. Pp. 692.

Dictionnaire étymologique. Par L. Pourret. Paris: A. Fourant; New York: F. W. Christern. 1886. Pp. 520.

An Etymological Dictionary of the French Language. By A. Brachet, translated by G. W. Kitchin. 3d edition. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1882. Pp. 407.

The Life of Words as the Symbols of Ideas. By Arsène Darmesteter. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1886. Pp. 173.

M. BRUNOT'S 'Grammaire historique' is much more ambitious than the analogous work published by M. Brachet twenty years ago. As the latter and his able translator, Mr. Kitchin, have not kept the older publication up to the requirements of modern science, it is natural that it should be superseded and surpassed. It may be doubted, however, whether the time has even now come when a complete French historical grammar can be written. There is as yet too little unanimity among the specialists of this branch of learning. The simplest forms give rise to too many contradictory statements. A single example may serve to show how much uncertainty yet exists in regard to the derivation of the commonest words. It is not necessary to look in very old French grammars to find the word *oui*, yes, explained as being the past participle of the verb *ouïr*, to hear. Then came the more logical and historical explanation, which accounts for the old form of the word, *oïl*, deriving it from *hoc illud*. This is probably accepted now by 99 per cent. of those who, without being specially etymologists, have generally correct ideas on French derivations. But of very late years the learned in phonetic changes have proved by analogy that the words *hoc illud* could never have given *oïl*, but only *oël*, so that one of them proposes as a solution the words *hoc illic* as the original of *oïl*. This etymology, for reasons which it would be pedantic to develop here, satisfies all the laws of letter changes from Latin to French. M. Clédat, in his 'Grammaire élémentaire de la vieille langue française,' already noticed in the *Nation*, rather shirks the question, although lately, in his edition of the 'Song of Roland,' he proposes *o* (Lat. *hoc*) and the personal pronoun *il*. In this M. Brunot follows him; so that, according to him, the answers to the questions, "Do you go?" "Does he go?" would have been *o je* and *o il*, as the answer to "Do we go?" would have been *o nous; o il* taking later the place of all the other forms. Hence, in view of all these newly discovered "belles choses," the professional etymologist must feel like exclaiming with Molière's *Madelon:* "Si l'on ignore ces choses, je ne donnerais pas un clou de tout l'esprit qu'on peut avoir."

M. Brunot is familiar with the latest researches, though in this elementary book he wisely gives only the results. After a very clear chapter on the general history of the French language, he devotes ninety pages to the now all-important branch, phonetics. But the main portion of the work is occupied with the forms and the syntax of the language. As to the syntax, scarcely anything good is to be found in former elementary historical grammars. M. Brunot has tried to do more than his predecessors, and in many cases has succeeded. The comparatively full treatment of the moods and tenses is especially to be noted. The book has a very complete table of contents, which, however, does not quite make up for the absence of an index.

The long sub-title of M. L. Pourret's work will do more than any analysis to give an idea of the author's intentions: "Vocabulaire des racines et des dérivés de la langue française, précédé de notions générales sur l'étymologie et la dérivation, à l'usage de tous les établissements d'instruction." This promises much, but the execution is not equal to the promise. The etymologies given are often more confusing than instructive, since they are seldom explained. The book is a typographical curiosity, being printed in two colors, red and black. The black is for the French words and the etymologies attributed to them; the red for the primitives, which are given mixed in with the French words, just as they come, in alphabetical order. Thus, after *fétu*, in black, we have in red "*Fetwa*, ARABE: *fetfa*," which might be puzzling even to pupils who had gone beyond the *établissements d'éducation*. Thus, again, in one column, besides the French words, we find: *hedera*, Latin; *hedjra*, Arabic; *hedra*, Greek: *heester*, Flemish; *hei*, Dutch; *heigero*, Old-High German; *heis*, Greek; etc. The author has evidently taken great pains to obtain a very meagre result.

The 'Etymological Dictionary' of M. Brachet, translated by Mr. Kitchin, received a long notice in the *Nation* when the first edition appeared in 1873. The second edition, in 1878, was a very great improvement on the first. The third edition does not differ materially from the second. It is but fair, in a notice of works on French etymologies, to recall this excellent book, one of the best printed by the Oxford Clarendon Press (New York: Macmillan). The 'Etymological Dictionary,' as improved by the translator, is far superior to the original work of M. Brachet, of which a very large number of editions have been issued with no material changes, though many are needed.

There has long been a promise of a French dictionary by MM. Darmesteter and Hatzfeld. In this we may expect, judging from the previous works of the authors, not only a careful presentation of the derivations, but also a logical classification of the meanings in the order of their development. The Dictionary is announced as in the press in the last work of M. Darmesteter, 'The Life of Words as the Symbols of Ideas.' The author delivered in London last year a short course of lectures which have been translated from the manuscript, as they have not yet been published in French. He says modestly in his preface that his book deals "almost exclusively" with that language. This is true as to the selection of examples only, for, while not addressing specialists, he touches with a light and graceful hand upon the very deepest general questions. His little book is very suggestive. Linguistic points thus treated, thus artistically presented and classed, may excite interest in the daintiest of readers. There are scattered throughout the work pages of exquisite beauty. Where all is so logically connected, it is difficult to quote, but a passage like the following may serve to indicate the general tone, where examples and diagrams are not made to teach the necessary lesson:

"A whole world of vague impressions, of indistinct sensations, live in the unconscious depths of our own thoughts, a sort of obscure dream which each of us carries in him. But words, rough interpreters of these inner worlds, allow only an infinitely small part of them to appear externally, those which are the most apparent and the most easily seized, and these are received by the listener, who in his turn gives to them the various fugitive and shifting aspects with which the basis of his own imagination furnishes him. . . . Thus each of us bears about with him a world of ideas and thoughts which remain in the subjective state, and which he is almost powerless to convey to others."

It would be misleading not to state that a great portion of the book is made up of examples often repeated. It deals less with general assertions than with a few (never exhaustive) details. The translation reads well, though fault might be found with the renderings of a few idioms. Thus: *Triste comme un bonnet de nuit sans coiffe* is rendered, "As melancholy as a nightcap without a tassel." Now, *coiffe* never meant *tassel*, and as *sans coiffe* (now always omitted) is what explains the queer expression *triste comme un bonnet de nuit*, the translator's version is misleading. The phrase may be found explained in Littré under *coiffe*. In conclusion it may be said that the impression left by M. Darmesteter's 'Life of Words' is that language is eminently a living organism, subject to the same laws as all organic life. If those who are trying to fetter thought in *Volapuk* or other conventional strait-jackets would but understand this, they might see the futility of their efforts.

'Le Démonstratif ILLE et le Relatif QUI en roman' (Paris, Vieweg) is a short essay by M. Darmesteter, in which he clearly and learnedly establishes the fact that the hitherto unsatisfactorily explained French *lui* was formed by analogy under the influence of the relative *cui*.

THE LATEST YEAR BOOKS.

Year Books of the Reign of King Edward the Third. Years 13 and 14. Edited and translated by Luke Owen Pike, M.A., of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister-at-Law, author of 'A History of Crime in England.' London: Longmans & Co. 1886.

A YEAR and a half ago we gave some account of the translated new Year Books of the twelfth and thirteenth of Edward III., then lately published under the editorship of Mr. L. O. Pike. The gap in the old black-letter volumes, between the tenth and seventeenth years, is now still further re-

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duced. Another volume has appeared, containing the reports of the thirteenth and fourteenth years of the same king, beginning with the Michaelmas (October–November) term of 1339, and ending with the next or Hilary term (January–February), 1339–1340. Edward's regnal year began with January 25. This volume is marked by the same excellent qualities that characterized the last one—the same comparison of various texts (more than seven in the case of this volume), the same occasional reproduction of a second report, and especially by the same careful collation with the original records. "Not only," says the editor, "are the references to the records in the present volume more numerous [than in the last one], but they must very nearly exhaust the possibilities of identification." No one who has not inspected the great and almost unsearchable bulk of these records can justly tell what labor this has involved on the part of the editor; it is very great. One fact we are glad to learn—that the Year Books have reported nearly all of the most important cases: "The Year Books are, in fact, to those who know how to use them, the most perfect guides to almost all that is most important in the rolls."

The editor confirms, by all he says and does, the opinion, which is growing in this country, no less than in England, that the old printed Year Books should be reëdited. It is gratifying to learn, from various sources, that this important task is likely to be undertaken before long. The idle and shallow opinion that the Year Books are obsolete and useless, is fast passing away. To legal students who would be thoroughly grounded, they are invaluable; and it is certain that a new, translated, and thoroughly edited set of the old Year Books, with all gaps supplied and the text brought into relation with the records and with the newly printed volumes, will be heartily welcomed by many persons on this side of the water, no less than on the other. There can be no doubt that in such scholars as Mr. Pike and Mr. Maitland, England has men that are fit for the task.

In this volume, as in the last, there is interesting matter touching the early infiltration of equitable principles into the common-law courts; especially in the case of Staunton vs. Staunton and wife (pp. 16–37), and Uppecote's case (pp. 83–98), and in the editor's comments on these cases at pp. xxxvi–xlvi. He remarks upon the uniformity given to the administration of justice by the constant supervision of the King in Council; and by the fact that a case brought in a common-law court might be carried into the Chancery at almost any stage. The system was

"that of proceeding by established forms so long as they sufficed, and of assistance from the authority to which they originally owed their existence where they sufficed no longer. . . . The unity of principle which is thus discernible may perhaps afford some assistance towards the comprehension of a very remarkable observation made by Stonore [C. J. of the Com. Pleas] in Uppecote's case. He said . . . : 'We see, on the one hand, that, according to good conscience and the law of God, it would be contrary to what is right (or reasonable), if the plaintiff speaks the truth, that by such a fine which is void he should be disinherited; and on the other hand, it is a strong measure, having regard to the law of the land, to take an averment which may annul the fine; wherefore we wish well to consider it.' The point in dispute was, like that in Staunton's case, the admissibility or otherwise of an averment relating to a fine, and one which presented an unforeseen difficulty. It is not impossible that Stonore's hesitation may have been caused in part by the decision of the Council in Staunton's case. In both cases he was clearly of opinion (though in Staunton's case the Council decided otherwise) that the averment was inadmissible in law; but in Uppecote's case he thought that in conscience or equity it should be admitted. It is not certain that he had any intention of applying the principles of conscience or equity in the Court of Common Pleas, but he may have thought that if this point were taken before the Council which listened to appeals for justice 'pur dieu' (made as for God's sake), the decision might be the same as in Staunton's case, and he may have taken time to consider whether he would follow that decision as one which did substantial justice, or act on his own opinion as to the strict law."

The learned reader will recall other cases in the Year Books that illustrate the same topic, *e. g.*, a case in Y. B. 39 Ed. 3. 35. A, where in strictness the plaintiff was entitled to judgment, but the court suspected some practice on the plaintiff's part and made an examination of the defendants, which tended to confirm their suspicions. The plaintiff insisted upon his right to judgment, but the Chief Justice refused, saying:

"The manner in which it is done is suspicious and 'vicious,' and in a like case of Giles Blaket it was spoken of (*parle*) in Parliament, and we were directed that when any such case came before us and we could see any *vitiosite*, we were not to proceed to judgment without good advisement; *car il soit malveis ensample*. Wherefore sue to the Council; and as they wish that we should do we will do; and otherwise we will do nothing in this case."

Mr. Pike has interesting remarks and suggestions on the puzzling topics of the *secta* and the early jury, and the way in which witnesses may have been used with the jury. "Upon the whole," he says, "it seems a reasonable inference that at the period of the reports in the present volumes there had not come into existence any trial by jury in the modern sense, any hearing by the jury of oral evidence given in court upon oath as a preliminary to their verdict." In the note on p. liii there is an error in the citation of the important case of Y. B. 17 Ed. 3. 48. pl. 14: both year and page are wrongly given. The editor's interesting speculations as to the custom of inserting in counts and declarations the names of witnesses who were never examined, might perhaps be illustrated by the practice, of which there are traces in the Year Books, of mentioning in the counsel's address to the jury the names of witnesses who were not examined.

In these Year Books, as in others, there are matters of a more general interest. The editor remarks upon the replication, in a certain action of Waste, that whitethorn is a tree upon which a graft can be made: "There is not, from a modern point of view, anything very remarkable in the statement, as it is well known that the whitethorn is used for grafting purposes. But it is not by any means so well known that fruit was cultivated with so much skill in the first half of the fourteenth century." The early history of surnames is another subject which is illustrated here. In the case of the Abbot of Glastonbury vs. Sir Richard Pyke, it is said: "Idem Ricardus et Thomas Richardsheyward Pyke attachiati fuerunt ad respondendum." The editor adds: "It is hardly necessary to say that 'Thomas Richardsheyward Pyke' is not an instance in which two baptismal names stand before a surname. . . . It may not, perhaps, be equally apparent that this Thomas had no surname at all. Thomas Richardsheyward Pyke is, however, in all probability, only an idiomatic expression which might be rendered in modern English, Thomas, the hayward of Richard Pyke. This is not a mere conjecture, but an inference founded on many similar instances. . . . The custom prevailed throughout the length and breadth of the land." Another instance is given from the record of a case in this volume, and two more from certain Durham records:—Edward, servant of Joon de Chiltern appears as Edward Jonesservant of Chiltern; William, servant of William Litster of Gateshead, as William Williamservant Litster of Gateshead; and Nicholas, servant of Robert of the Woghes, as Nicholas Robertservant of the Woghes. "The only reasonable explanation of the formula seems to be that at a time when family names were not very definitely fixed, even throughout the whole of the higher ranks, persons in the lowest ranks had no family names and no surnames of their own at all."

Mr. Pike announces in his preface, dated in August last, that the material "is in a forward state of preparation as far as the end of the sixteenth year of the reign." We may hope, therefore, to see before long another volume of his scholarly and thoroughly good work.

THAYER'S GREEK-ENGLISH LEXICON OF THE NEW TESTAMENT.

A Greek-English Lexicon of the New Testament: being Grimm's Wilke's Clavis Novi Testamenti, Translated, Revised, and Enlarged by Joseph Henry Thayer, D.D., Professor in the Divinity School of Harvard University. Harper & Bros.

THE long-expected appearance of this book is matter of special rejoicing, not only to theological students and all ministers who use the Greek Testament as they ought, but to any other persons who have a fair general knowledge of the language, and would like to make careful reading of the New Testament in the original. Dr. Robinson's Lexicon was a useful book, but never satisfactory. Edward Robinson was the creator of modern Biblical geography, and in that department a great honor to American scholarship. But he had no special talent for philological work, and his lexicon is unscientific. Moreover, the German works on which his was based were far inferior to that of Grimm, now translated and greatly improved by Dr. Thayer. From the first appearance of Grimm's book (completed in 1868, with a second edition in 1879) its great superiority was recognized by scholars in all countries. We know of an American theological teacher who at once made his students throw away Robinson and use Grimm in the Latin, though the average American student does not do that with delightful facility, and will no doubt distinctly prefer the English.

Robinson (whose second edition appeared in 1850) gave only the words and forms found in the Greek Testament of Hahn, a now forgotten follower of Griesbach. We are still far from having any single standard for the Greek text. Grimm wisely gave whatever was in the so-called Textus Receptus, with all the additional words and forms found in Griesbach, in Lachmann, or in Tischendorf; Thayer has now added every word or form found in Tregelles or in Westcott and Hort, even the marginal readings; so that whatever Greek Testament is read, this Lexicon will meet the reader's wants. We were at first inclined to regret that Dr. Thayer did not follow the example of Robinson and of Grimm in constructing an independent work on the basis of a predecessor. This would have been more convenient and agreeable to beginners and to the majority of general readers. But Grimm's book has attained such generally recognized preëminence that scholars would have been constantly desirous of knowing whether his view was precisely the same as that given in the American work. Upon the whole, therefore, we are satisfied that Dr. Thayer has pursued the wisest course. He translates Grimm throughout, putting in square brackets his own additions and intimations of dissent. We think these additions are of such extent and value as to warrant its being called Thayer's Lexicon. The translation itself is remarkably good. A German writer's Latin is apt to retain in some measure the Teutonic lack of lucidity, and a translation of it into idiomatic, clear, and agreeable English is really not a very easy task; but

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Dr. Thayer had already disciplined and exhibited his skill by translating from the German the great works of Winer and Buttmann on New Testament Greek Grammar. He of course does not here content himself with rendering Grimm's Latin definitions into English, for, besides other considerations, a good many Greek words or uses of words can be more exactly paralleled in English than in Latin.

The additions consist in large measure of references to recent works in every department, including lexicons, grammars, and commentaries, Bible dictionaries, and articles in leading periodicals, and records of learned societies of Germany, England, and America. These references have been prepared with great labor, and, so far as we can judge, with wise discrimination. They will be of great use to students having access to large theological libraries, and many of them can be turned to account by the better furnished pastors. The views of the writers referred to are sometimes summarily stated, and it is often intimated that they do not agree with Grimm. One wishes that the substance of the corrective or additional matter from these authorities could have been more generally given, however briefly, for the sake of the numerous ministers who do not possess, or have not time to consult, the books to which reference is made. Yet it was probably seen that this would too greatly enlarge the work, and that it would be difficult to present opinions contrary to those of Grimm without frequently undertaking to decide between them, which would have produced confusion. Dr. Thayer has modestly shrunk from putting forward his own opinions, and even where he unquestionably dissents strongly from Grimm, he is usually content to say, "Others think," etc. It is certainly graceful to make a lexicon so far as possible impersonal, and many are very anxious to rely on such a work as an impartial authority. They know that a commentary gives only the views of its author; but they wish to think otherwise as to a grammar or lexicon of the original language. Yet, after all, no such work can free itself from the personal prepossessions of those who construct it. As Addison Alexander once casually said of Robinson, "a lexicon is only a commentary in alphabetical order." Dr. Thayer has recognized this fact in his preface, and in defining terms, or particular uses, concerning which there is a difference of doctrinal opinion, he has usually referred to leading treatises on both sides. His breadth of view and studious fairness are evident at all points. It is probably through inadvertence that he has sometimes failed to intimate dissent where Grimm, in dealing with a case of "discrepancy" between two Gospels, has remarked, as a matter of course, that one or the other is in error, without hinting at the possibility of reconciliation.

A notable and readily helpful class of additions consists in the discussion of groups of synonyms. Here the editor, of course, frequently draws upon Trench and the recent elaborate work of Schmidt; and he gives a number of choice bits from the commentaries of Bishop Lightfoot. His own statements are very discriminating and carefully guarded. The common vice of writers on synonyms in any language is that they make their distinctions sharper, and push them more consistently through the entire use, than facts will warrant. Grimm's etymologies were somewhat meagre, and occasionally quite erroneous, his talents or attainments not seeming to lie in that direction. Thayer has here also made valuable additions, with references to recent German works of great importance.

We observe fewer additions to the discussion of particles than to that of nouns and verbs. Grimm is especially full and complete in these portions of his work, and here not so much has been added by recent specialists. It is not clear whether Dr. Thayer himself takes less interest in the study of particles than in other departments of lexicography.

Great pains have been taken to make use of the recent remarkable progress in Semitic studies, wherever light is thus thrown upon the use of words in the New Testament.

The appendix to the American work is a very important feature, both for advanced students and for beginners. The copious list of forms of verbs will not only help the tyro, but will relieve some good Greek scholars, when they first begin to read Westcott and Hort and are puzzled by unfamiliar inflectional forms or peculiarities of orthography. The other lists will furnish important help to advanced students, and are evidently the fruit of unstinted labor. They comprise (1) Greek words in the New Testament which are not found in general Greek use till after the time of Aristotle; (2) words borrowed from Hebrew, Latin, etc.; (3) words and significations found only in the New Testament; (4) words peculiar to individual New-Testament writers. Here careful attention has been given to differences of text, as found in leading critical editions.

The book is admirably printed. In a pretty careful examination, and some daily use, we have stumbled upon no error of the press; and the well-known difficulty of attaining accuracy in proof-reading is in such a work raised to the second power. Some junior students will probably wish the publishers had printed in closer lines and on thinner paper, so as to rival the German edition in cheapness; but the cost would not thus have been greatly diminished to them, and their eyesight will in all probability begin to fail before this excellent work is superseded.

Having referred at the outset to readers of the Greek Testament who are not ministers, it may be well that we should add a word concerning the present choice of editions. Such as prefer the Textus Receptus may get either Scrivener's Greek Testament, which gives the text of Stephens, and at the bottom of the page the principal differences of reading presented by several leading critical editions; or Scrivener's other edition, which attempts to give the precise Greek text followed by King James's translators, and indicates the departures from this made by the recent Anglo-American revision. Those who sympathize with progress in this respect will, in our judgment, make a great mistake if they choose any edition of Tischendorf, whose apparatus of text-criticism is unrivalled, but whose unsound and vacillating judgment has led to the production of a text that is highly inconsistent and in every way unsatisfactory. It is far better to take Westcott and Hort, whose text alone may now be had in very cheap editions. Some of their particular decisions will doubtless be corrected by future progress, but the work is constructed on a scientific method, and as a whole is very good. It is pleasant to observe that the text offered by the most progressive and fearless criticism leaves the doctrinal, ecclesiastical, and ethical teachings of the New Testament substantially unaltered. Some readers might prefer Palmer's Greek Testament, which presents the text followed in the recent revision; this text, we think, is nearly always right in so far as it departs from the Textus Receptus, but ought to go further still.

Modern Idols. Studies in Biography and Criticism. By William Henry Thorne. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. 1887.

MR. THORNE is a very honest critic. He has told his readers just what he thinks about Arnold, Browning, Ole Bull, Burns, Carlyle, George Eliot, and George Sand; and the virtue of frankness in this case involved, one would think, that of courage. He is a man interested in poetry, but not in Arnold's—whose career therein he thus summarizes from start to finish: "Like most English schoolboys of refined feelings and lofty aspirations, he began early to scribble verses, and the fact that in his twenty-first year he won the Newdigate prize for his poem on Cromwell led him to waste a great many of his earlier years in writing what is called poetry. . . . It is perfectly useless for his over zealous admirers to laud the work which, as poetry, is destined to be very short-lived." It is not the truth but the courage of this view which is worth remarking. We cannot resist the temptation to continue the quotation in order that Mr. Thorne may stand exactly on the merits of his own words. He goes on: "Mr. Arnold's own definition of poetry is, that it deals with and describes actions; the greater and nobler the actions, so much better the texts of the poems. If Shakespeare, or Goethe, or Tennyson, had defined poetry, any one of them would have said that it had to do with impulses, feelings, spirituality, angels' and demons wings, and such voices of nature as are heard by poets alone." The fine audacity with which he here contradicts a greater than Arnold is perhaps less striking than the happy self-confidence with which he informs us what "any one of them" would have replied if he were respectfully interrogated. Pray, did Shakspere and Goethe never actually define the art in language of their own? and can these "angels' and demons' wings" be fairly regarded as a felicitous paraphrase of their remarks? But, possibly, Mr. Thorne did not mean to include drama as a part of poetry, for we notice he says later that "Robert Browning was never made to wear or jingle the adornments of 'cap and bells,'" and seems to think writing for the stage a poor business for a modern man.

Next to the boldness of this writer, his distinguishing trait is the excellence of his moral views. He approaches poetry through his moral fervor, and does really get into some contact with it on that side; but it is in the region of prose, particularly in biography, that his righteousness glows most fiercely. He does not make the mistake of rendering judgment—that he leaves to the proper authority; he admits that "the world is not all conscience and justice and severity, any more than it is all mugwump, dandy, dallying, and clown"; and he is willing to wait for the everlasting bonfire, as Shakspere calls it, to abolish the latter half of his antithesis. He is, however, especially sound on the doctrine of marriage; and, while he exclaims against condemnation, yet the proceedings of George Eliot and George Sand were so flagrant that he cannot get them out of his mind, and his refraining from judgment upon them strikes one as a good deal like that mode of savage torture which consists in seeing how nigh one can shoot without hitting, or how small a bit of flesh he can chip off the victim. George Sand is, in fact, a name of Babylon to him, and he rejoices in the exactness of that symbolic picture of her which the fathers showed the youthful Renan, as a woman in black trampling on the cross. Burns is treated with more of imagination, but the pit is conveniently near at hand. This irrepressible conviction of the universality and irresistibility of the moral law, which pervades the book, shows traces in its peculiar mental and linguistic form of Carlylese origin, and consequently one is not surprised to find Carlyle more highly lauded than the rest; but this partiality does not extend to his wife, of whom it is declared: "Throughout her earlier and later letters it is plain that Mrs. Carlyle was seldom her best—that is, her most agreeable and attractive—in her husband's pre-

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sence"! The conclusion of the whole matter is, that the author is delightfully intrepid, and a son of orthodox morality, and is gifted with other excellences of character. But character, though a much more precious thing, is not culture; and hence, willingly as one recognizes the author's strong interest in letters and in righteousness, his faithfulness and ability in compiling facts in a reviewer's way, and his altogether worthy aims, nevertheless more cannot be said in conscience than that he is an honest critic.

Raleigh. By Edmund Gosse, M.A. [English Worthies.] D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 284. 1886.

THE life of Sir Walter Raleigh has been so thoroughly investigated and so often written that any new biographer must find himself embarrassed, at once by the abundance of materials and by the difficulty of saying anything new about him. Mr. Gosse has, however, the advantage that the new materials brought to light in 1868 by Mr. Edwards and Mr. St. John have never before been collated and embodied in a biography of a popular character. He has, moreover, chosen to confine himself to the personal career of his hero, "disengaged from the general history of his time." What might appear, therefore, a superfluous task, in the face of so many books professing to cover the same ground, is a welcome addition to our libraries.

The story of Raleigh's life is told by Mr. Gosse with great fulness and sobriety, and in a very interesting way. To illustrate his point of view, we will give a passage in relation to Raleigh as a discoverer (p. 76):

"It has been customary of late, in reaction *against the defamation of Raleigh in the eighteenth* century, to protest that gold was not his chief aim in the Guiana enterprise, but that his main wish, under cover of the search for gold, was to form a South American colony for England, and to open out the west to general commerce. With every wish to hold this view, I am unable to do so in the face of the existing evidence. More humane, more intelligent than any of the adventurers who had preceded him, it yet does not seem that Raleigh was less insanely bitten with the gold fever than any of them. He saw the fleets of Spain return to Europe year after year laden with precious metals from Mexico, and he exaggerated, as all men of his age did, the power of this tide of gold. He conceived that no one would stem the dangerous influence of Spain until the stream of wealth was diverted or divided. He says in the most direct language that it is not the trade of Spain, her export of wines and Seville oranges and other legitimate produce, that threatens shipwreck to us all: 'it is his Indian gold that endangereth and disturbeth *all the nations of Europe*; *it purchaseth* intelligence, creepeth into councils, and setteth bound loyalty at liberty in the greatest monarchies of Europe.' In Raleigh's exploration of Guiana, his steadfast hope, the hope which led him patiently through so many hardships, was that he might secure for Elizabeth a vast auriferous colony, the proceeds of which might rival the revenues of Mexico and Peru. But we must not make the mistake of supposing him to have been so wise before his time as to perceive that the real wealth which might paralyze a selfish power like that of Spain, would consist in the cereals and other products which such a colony might learn to export."

We will also call attention to the judgment upon the 'History of the World' (p. 176), a judgment for which Mr. Gosse is especially qualified.

Introduction to a History of the Factory System. By E. Whately Cooke Taylor. London: Richard Bentley & Sons. 1886. 8vo, pp. 441.

MR. COOKE TAYLOR is, we understand, a Government inspector of factories in England, whose attention had been drawn to the rather surprising fact that there exists no adequate account of the origin and growth of the factory system. He proposed to himself to supply this deficiency, but found the obstacles so great, at once in the mass of detail to be marshalled, and at the same time in the lack of material, that he decided to suspend the execution of his original plan, and undertake the preliminary task of preparing an historical introduction to the subject, leaving it to others, or to himself at some future time, to fill in the outline here sketched. Even this more modest preliminary work is one of no small amount of difficulty and complication. The amount of detail gathered in this volume is very great, and we are inclined to think that if the author has erred anywhere, it has been just in this respect. The number of facts here gathered, and their lack of organic connection with one another, sometimes interfere with the consecutive treatment and unity of view which have been his aim throughout. The subject treated is nothing less than the history of industrial organization, and this has really made necessary a history of industry. Industrial processes, therefore, inventions and discoveries, come necessarily within his scope; and, as trade is inextricably connected with manufacture, commercial relations have been also treated.

The preparation for the work has evidently been made faithfully and industriously, and the references testify to a large range of reading and study. The result has, as he says, inevitably been in a great degree compilation. We note, however, an absence of any but English authorities; and in this limitation of materials we find an explanation of the most important limitation in the treatment. There is very little in the English language upon the history and organization of industry during the Middle Ages, and it is here that we find the book least satisfactory. The account of the mediæval guilds (chiefly from Lacroix) and of mediæval commerce is quite inadequate. On the other hand, ancient history and that of the modern centuries are treated very fully and well.

In a book like this the subject of definition is of the first importance, and the first chapter is devoted to establishing a terminology. This is not an easy task, in view of the loose and conflicting use of many terms, and here and there the discussion labors somewhat from lack of clearness. The fault, however, arises from the nature of the subject, and in general the definitions are exceedingly good, while the statements of fundamental economical principles are clear and sound. "Manufacture is the making commodities in excess of local needs, and trade is their organized dispersion; and in pursuing the history of the one we shall generally find ourselves on the track of the other" (p. 17). "The proper conception of handicraft is . . . nearly the *opposite* of the modern conception of manufacture, and the two terms cannot be regarded as convertible without a distinct loss to economic nomenclature. The one (handicraft) is the system of isolated individual effort, as opposed to the other, the system of combined and generally mechanically aided production" (*ib*). The word "factory," it is said, "will be used all through these pages in its popular rather than its historical or legal sense up to the period of its being defined by statute. The early signification of a trading establishment will be altogether and everywhere excluded, and the later meaning, of a place of production, will be at first and everywhere understood. It will be held to be *any* such place of production—that is, any *definite place* where *associated industrial production* is carried on, *by whatever means*" (p. 36).

The importance of the book is largely as a contribution towards the solution of the great problems of the day:

"These problems," says Mr. Taylor, "are becoming more pressing as time proceeds, as this system strikes its roots deeper, and spreads its branches wider, at the expense of elder and less energetic growths; and this while a dazed legislature is painfully feeling its way among them, with half concessions and temporary expedients, clumsily enough for the most part, while still on the whole faithful to the high responsibilities of its trust. . . . The expansion of the factory system into nearly all departments of industrial employment in the country has become an already accomplished fact. Commensurate with it has become the desire among the better minded of the people, including our more thoughtful legislators, to take precautions that the new order of things shall be introduced at the least preventable cost of human health and happiness. It was not so always, but such is the feeling now. But this benevolent intention is at present checked and hampered, is liable to be diverted from its proper course and rendered nugatory or even injurious, by the amazing ignorance of the history and philosophy of the whole subject that prevails. I am anxious to make a humble beginning towards a better state of things" (Preface, p. ix.).

This praiseworthy intention has certainly been carried out successfully; and the reader will acquire, with a vast amount of information, a clear notion of the historical relations of this important subject.

Essays. By James Vila Blake. Chicago: Chas. H. Kerr & Co.; Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. 1887.

IT is not easy to write in a field which so different authors as Montaigne and Bacon have cultivated, or, at a further remove, Seneca and Emerson. To compose moral essays is to invite unlucky comparisons as inevitably as when one attempts poetry. There is the same danger, too, in such literary efforts as in versifying, that the writer will fall into mannerisms both of his own and of the greater models; and in substance there is usually as little freshness in reflections on Anger as in amatory fancies. The exception arises in both kinds when there is a genius at work, moral in the one and poetic in the other. But Mr. Blake is not a moral genius; and his pages illustrate these perils of the moralist, which have just been alluded to, as likely to beset his way in our time. He discourses in short articles, which read like excerpts from good, quiet, cultivated sermons, upon Choice, Vainglory, Censure, Knowledge, Patience, Death, and twenty-four other subjects of the same sort. The thoughts are just, the temper serious and benevolent, the quotations thick from Epictetus, Rochefoucauld, and that irreproachable genus; and one has to say of it, as of a book of verses, that it is excellent, only it fails of distinction. One observes, too, as a sign of the author's real range, that his beloved poet seems to be Schefer.

Home Life of Great Authors. By Hattie Tyng Griswold. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1887.

THIS volume contains papers, compiled from the proper authorities, upon thirty-three of the most famous authors of this century, living and dead, all but four of the number being English or American. The accounts are readable, and substantially accurate, although the writer is not altogether free from the fault of painting fancy pictures of scenes, and filling in with imaginary details. The subject is the unfortunate one of the domestic life of genius, but this limit is not very narrowly observed; most often we have a condensed biography, with special attention given to the personal element, in the way of description, anecdote, reminiscences, and other such matters as a skilful collector could gather from the plentiful sources of such information. There is a noticeable good taste shown in dealing with those more intimate portions of the lives of the heroes and heroines—the *affaires de cœur*. With Byron, Bulwer, Goethe, Burns, George Sand, to mention no others, there was need of some tact in statement. The almost undiscriminating for-

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giveness which the author dispenses to these illustrious offenders, is not so agreeable a trait of her work. In fact, there is a good deal of weak worship in the volume, of a laudation of men apart from their genius and their service, which, though natural enough, ought to be kept within better bounds. Perhaps, too, a more explicit acknowledgment of obligation to original authorities might have been expected.

The Electric Motor and its Applications. By Thomas Commerford Martin and Joseph Wetzler. New York: W. J. Johnston. 1887.

As this work is largely made up of articles from the *Electrical World*, describing, from the inventor's standpoint in each case, different electrical inventions which are competing with each other for public favor, it is not strange that it contains neither a comparative discussion of the merits of these inventions nor a judicial presentation of them. The variety of sources drawn upon may account for the diversities of literary style exhibited in the book, and very probably for the want of uniform excellence in its illustrations. Nevertheless, it will interest both the general reader and those who are professionally or otherwise especially concerned with the subject to which it relates. It describes a large number of kinds of electro-motors, applied to various purposes with what is asserted to be great practical success.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, E. P. Railway Practice. Its Principles and Suggested Reforms Reviewed. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Alexander, Prof. A. Some Problems of Philosophy. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Allen, A. P. The Ambassadors of Commerce. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 25 cents.
Bancroft, H. H. History of the Pacific States of North America. Vol. xxvii, British Columbia. 1792-1887. San Francisco: The History Co.
Barr, Amelia E. The Squire of Sandal-Side: A Pastoral Romance. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Boisilsle, A. de. Mémoires du duc de Saint-Simon. éd. Regnier fils. 18mo. T. xxi. Supplément. Boston: Schoenhof.
Collar—Daniell. Latine Reddenda: Exercises from the Beginner's Latin Book. Boston: Ginn & Co. 22 cents.
Crane, Prof. T. F. Le Romantisme Français: A Selection from Writers of the French Romantic School. 1824—1848. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Doucet, Camille. Concours littéraires 1875-1885. Boston: Schoenhof.
Durand, Madame la Générale. Napoleon and Marie-Louise: A Memoir. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.
Fenn, G. M. Devon Boys: A Tale of the North Shore. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Frost, C. Reminiscences of a Country Journalist. Scribner & Welford. $2.
Förster, Max von. Compressed Gun Cotton for Military Use. D. Van Nostrand.
Goodell, T. D. Greek in English: First Lessons in Greek. Henry Holt & Co. 75 cents.
Habberton, J. Helen's Babies. 200th ed. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 50 cents.
Hallowell, R. P. The Pioneer Quakers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Hare, J. I. C. The Law of Contracts. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Harris, Prof. S. The Self-Revelation of God. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.50.
Higgins, C. Home Rule; or the Irish Land Question. Facts and Arguments. Rand, McNally & Co. $1.
Higginson, T. W. The Monarch of Dreams. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Hopkins, Louisa P. Practical Pedagogy; or, The Science of Teaching. Illustrated. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Janvier, T. A. The Mexican Guide. With two maps. 1. The City of Mexico; 2. Environs of the City of Mexico. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Krauskopf, Rabbi J. The Jews and Moors in Spain. Kansas City: M. Berkowitz & Co.
Lee, E. Dorothy Wordsworth: The Story of a Sister's Love. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Lorenz, Otto. Catalogue général de la Librairie française. T. ix. Fasc. 2. Cr—H. Boston. Schoenhof.
Luckock, Canon H. M. The Bishops in the Tower: A Record of Stirring Events affecting the Church and Nonconformists from the Restoration to the Revolution. Thomas Whittaker. $1.50.
Newton, Rev. H. Social Studies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Ohnet, G. Noir et Rose. Paris: Ollendorff. New York: Westermann.
Poore, B. P. Reminiscences of Sixty Years in the National Metropolis. Illustrated. Vol. ii. Philadelphia: Hubbard Brothers.
Prince, J. T. Courses and Methods: A Handbook for Teachers of Primary, Grammar, and Ungraded Schools. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Raymond, G. L. Ballads of the Revolution, and Other Poems. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.25.
Remsen, Prof. I. Elements of Chemistry: A Text-Book for Beginners. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Ridgway, R. A Nomenclature of Colors for Naturalists, and Compendium of Useful Knowledge for Ornithologists. Illustrated. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Sichler, Léon. Histoire de la littérature russe. Boston: Schoenhof.
Skene, F. M. F. A Strange Inheritance. A Novel. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Smith, G. H. Elements of Right and of the Law. To which is added a Historical and Critical Essay upon the several Theories of Jurisprudence. Second edition. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
Stapfer, Paul. Molière et Shakespeare. (Nouvelle édition, 1887.) Boston: Schoenhof.
Stapfer, Paul. Racine et Victor Hugo. Boston: Schoenhof.
Stickney. A Second Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Swainson, Rev. C. Provincial Names and Folk-Lore of British Birds. London: Trübner & Co.
Taken by Siege: A Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Thackeray, W. M. The Adventures of Philip. To which is now prefixed A Shabby-Genteel Story. Handy Edition. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co. 50 cents.

Fine Arts.

THE SALMAGUNDI CLUB EXHIBITION.

THE Salmagundi Club holds a yearly exhibition of works in black and white. The ninth exhibition is now open, in connection with the second annual exhibition of the Architectural League, at the galleries of the American Art Association. The chief interest in the present exhibition centres in the collection of drawings by E. A. Abbey for Goldsmith's comedy, "She Stoops to Conquer," and the drawings by Kenyon Cox for Rossetti's poem, "The Blessed Damozel." Both of these collections of original drawings have already been on exhibition in New York, the one at the Grolier Club, the other at Reichard's gallery. These works of Mr. Abbey and Mr. Cox, really important achievements in the field of illustrative work, so highly appreciated and so well received by the art public in New York, have been noticed at length in the columns of the daily press, and call for no extended notice here. The exhibition proper of the Salmagundi Club is confined to a miscellaneous collection of black and white oils, charcoal drawings, etchings, one or two bronzes, and some wood-cut proofs. This exhibition is far from attaining a high average. There is a striking dearth of drawings. Black and white work in New York seems to be drifting more and more in the direction of "effects" in heavy oil sketches, and the artists who exhibited at the Salmagundi Club's exhibition seem to rely more every year on strong contrasts of crude white and solid black masses to make pictures, than on any delicacy of line or any attempt to make drawings pure and simple. The beauty of pure outline or the more substantial quality of well-balanced masses of true light and shade is lost sight of in the scrambling after noisy effect. In the present exhibition there are impossible landscapes and badly-drawn illustrations in oil. A few pen-and-ink drawings are in no way remarkable for any real art qualities. They are in the main amateurish efforts, that would not even make a creditable appearance in the pages of a popular magazine with the gain derived from reduction in size.

The impression made by this exhibition so far as the new work is concerned is dreary in the extreme, for the contemplation of such perfunctory performances as the majority of the pictures shown this year certainly are, is not calculated to encourage the champions of the native school. If we find few good drawings in what is ostensibly an exhibition of drawings, we are forced to one of two conclusions, either that our artists cannot draw, or that if we have draughtsmen, they have not thought it worth while to send work to the Salmagundi Exhibition. The latter is without doubt the correct inference to be drawn from the present exhibition. Leaving out of the question Messrs. Abbey and Cox, there is nothing here from Smedley, Beckwith, Chase, Dewing, Denman, Mowbray, Rice, Hovenden, Reinhart, Blum, Ulrich, Blashfield, Brush, Bunker, Montague Flagg, Harrison, Simmons, F. Jones, Dannat, Low, Robinson, Vedder, Sartain, Bridgman, or Sargent. We find only among the familiar names in good figure work Millet, Wiles, Wyatt Eaton, Maynard, Lippincott, Dielman, and Thulstrup. Lack of interest in a black-and-white exhibition on the part of our best figure painters, or doubts as to the utility of such an exhibition, must, in our opinion, be the cause of such a weak display in this branch of art.

"The Orphans," No. 255, is one of the best figure compositions in this exhibition. It is by Frederick Dielman. The same artist shows an excellent "Portrait," No. 12, a soberly drawn study of a gentleman seated at his library table. W. H. Lippincott's "Head," No. 323, is a clever study in charcoal, J. R. Wiles's "A Pose in Black," No. 228, a deftly-handled wash drawing, and G. W. Maynard's "News," No. 251, an old man reading a newspaper, a good little genre, although in tone it is too black, are quite worth looking at. Wyatt Eaton, in the "Judgment of Paris," No. 239, has attempted a subject of the most ambitious kind. The nude figures are not realistic by any means. The drawing leans too much toward an imitation of the classic painters in a certain ampleness of form that a live painter of the modern school would never have thought of trying for; but, despite some very grave faults, the drawing may be commended for its good intention. "A Relay on the Old Boston Post Road," No. 360, is a spirited and sufficiently well-drawn illustration by T. de Thulstrup. "Her Dream," No. 291, is a successful bit of fantasy, decoratively treated by W. V. Birney. "A Wet Evening at the Thirtieth Street Station," No. 267, by H. W. Ranger, is a good example of what may be done in the way of making every-day subjects interesting in black and white, and J. R. Wiles's "A Rainy Day," No. 259, though less important, deserves to be mentioned for the same distinguishing merit.

In landscape, leaving out the multitude of "noisy" effects in oil already alluded to, we find some excellent work by Chas. Warren Eaton in his tender "Charcoal Study," No. 68, and "By the Roadside," No. 35; in B. W. Loomis's landscape, No. 295; "A Windy Day," No. 201, by C. A. Vanderhoof; "Solitude," No. 48, by D. Kotz; in the naïvely treated little studies by T. R. Manley, Nos. 49, 59, 72, and 320; and in F. Leo Hunter's wash sketches, "Fishing Smack," No. 314, and "Winter on the Long Island Shore," No. 109.

The exhibition of the Architectural League in gallery E comprises 189 numbers, including projects and designs and a heterogeneous collection of sketches and drawings, water-color sketches of street scenes in picturesque European towns, colored detail drawings of decorations, such as those in the palace of Fontainebleau, and pen drawings of furniture. It is not such an exhibition as should be made by the Architectural League, but it may be that the exhibition as it is will prove to be more popular than it would be if it were more dignified and professional in character. Excellent technical work is shown in "Details from the Château d'Anet," No. 158, by J. W. Wells; real artistic quality in Stanford White's "Sketches of Rouen," No. 14, and "Sketch for a Piano," No. 86, by John Du Fais. "Foreign Sketches," No. 162, by Walter Cope, are good water-color drawings. There are innumerable designs for country houses, more or less good, but most of them lacking in the important quality of beauty, and some eccentric projects for public buildings.

In gallery C is exhibited a collection of thirty-seven Limoges paintings by Charles Volkmar. Some of these, such as "The Bronx near Fordham," No. 12, are handsome in color, and all are effective as wall decorations. It is rather doubtful taste, however, to frame these pretty plaques in glaring gold.

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